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ALLEN AND GREENOUGH'S

LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

FOUNDED ON COMPARATIVE GRAMMAR

Revised and Enlarged

BY

JAMES BRADSTREET GREENOUGH

ASSISTED BY

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PREFACE TO REVISED EDITION.

THE Publishers have again taken advantage of the opportunity offered by the necessary recasting of the plates of this book to cause such improvements to be made in it as the advance of grammatical knowledge and the experience of the schoolroom have shown to be advisable. The revising editors have endeavored to simplify and make plain the statement of principles, so far as could be done without sacrificing scientific correctness; but no concession has been made to the prevalent mechanical method of treating the science of language. Many additional explanations and suggestions have been made in the text and foot-notes, for the benefit of teachers and advanced scholars. The number and range of examples have been very considerably increased; and it is hoped that scholars will find no grammatical usage in their ordinary reading that is not provided for in the statements laid down.

The treatment of the formation of words has been much extended; and new light it is hoped, has been shed upon this difficult and ever-advancing branch of the science. In cases where comparative philology is concerned, the editors have endeavored to set down the sure results of the so-called "New Grammar," but have been conservative about accepting doctrines which, though likely to be true, cannot yet be regarded as fully proved, and are certainly not universally accepted. In conformity with the modern practice all naturally long vowels, known to be such, including those whose natural quantity is concealed by position, have been marked throughout; but many suspected to be long have been left unmarked, where the evidence did not seem sufficiently convincing.

Some new doctrines will be found in regard to the order of words, which, though not generally accepted, will the editors are persuaded, meet with more general approval, the better they are applied and understood. This subject has only just begun to receive the consideration it deserves.

No changes of any account have been made in the numbering of sections.

In conclusion, the editors hope that they have made still more plain some of the devious ways of Latin grammar, and feel that if their new efforts meet with anything like the same favor that has been shown to the book heretofore, they shall be amply rewarded.

PREFACE TO THE EDITION OF 1877.

THE editors have taken advantage of the re-casting of the plates to make some improvements in the present edition, which have grown upon their hands, until in fact a thorough revision of the book has been made.

The principal changes are the following: 1. The matter of each part has been cast in chapters, with sub-divisions by numbered paragraphs. 2. A considerable expansion has been given to several sections, especially to those on Phonetic Changes and the Formation of Words; inflectional forms have been more carefully exhibited, and sections have been added on the Syntax of Pronouns and Particles. 3. Strictly philological matter, not intended for class use, has been put in the form of marginal notes. 4. The several topics of the Syntax are introduced by brief prefatory notes, suggesting what we consider to be the true theory of the constructions; these are not designed for class use, and are not included in the numbered sections. 5. Some important additions and illustrations have been given in the Prosody. The substance of the book remains as before. The form of expression, however, has been carefully revised; and a few sections have been transferred to a different connection.

The proof-sheets have been submitted to several experienced teachers, who have generously aided us by their criticism, and have contributed many valuable practical suggestions. The editors have pleasure in acknowledging, also, their special indebtedness to Professor Caskie Harrison, of the University of the South, Sewanee, Tenn., whose correspondence has made a very full running commentary extending over the greater portion of the book, including all the Syntax, with copious discussion of numerous incidental topics. His notes have been of the greatest service to them; have sometimes modified their views and constantly supplemented them; have urged important points upon their attention, and have not seldom suggested valuable improvements through the very antagonism of opposing doctrine. Material less easy to specify in detail, but not less valuable or welcome, has been received from Professor M. W. Humphreys, of Nashville, from the principals of the academies at Andover, Exeter, and Quincy, and from others, to whom cordial thanks are due for the interest they have testified in the work.

CAMBRIDGE, September 25, 1877.

NOTE.

FOR the convenience of those who may wish to follow up more minutely the study of the subjects treated in this book, a list of important works is given below.

AILEN, F. D.: *Remnants of Early Latin*.

AMERICAN *Journal of Philology*, Vols. I. to VIII. and continued.

BOPP: *Vergleichende Grammatik des Sanskrit*, etc. [Indo-European languages.] 4 vols. 3d ed. Berlin: 1868-70.

Original standard work on Comparative Forms. Later researches have corrected some erroneous details. English translation (poor). London: 1862. The best form is a French translation, with Notes and Introductions by Michel Bréal. Paris: 1866.

BEZZENBERGER: *Beiträge zur Kunde der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen*. I-13.

BRAMBACH: *Lateinische Orthographie*. 1868.

BRUGMANN: *Grundriss der Vergleichenden Grammatik*. Vol. I. Strassburg: 1886; Vol. II., 1889-92.

Greek Grammar. See "Müller's Handbuch."

CORSSEN: *Aussprache, Vokalismus und Betonung der Lateinischen Sprache*. 2 vols. 2d ed. Leipzig: 1868.

The greatest work on Latin *alone*, treating the language in reference to its own individual development, particularly as to the sounds (*Lautlehre*). Must be used with caution.

CURTIUS, G.: *Grundzüge der Griechischen Etymologie*. 3d ed. Leipzig: 1869.

Treats of Latin only by comparison, but is one of the most valuable works on the general subject.

——— *Erläuterungen zu meiner Griechischen Schulgrammatik*. 2d ed. Prag: 1870. English translation ("Elucidations"). London: 1870.

Notes giving in connection with the Greek Grammar the simplest view of the doctrine of forms.

——— *Das Griechische Verbum*.

DELBÜCK: *Das Conjunctiv und Optativ im Sanskrit und Griechischen*. Halle: 1871.

Origin of the Moods treated scientifically. Should be read in connection with a notice in "North American Review," October, 1871, and "Analysis of the Latin Subjunctive," by J. B. Greenough (Cambridge: 1870).

——— *Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis im Indischen*, etc. Berlin: 1867.

Origin of the various Ablative constructions.

Note.

FICK: *Vergleichendes Wörterbuch der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen.* Göttingen: 1870.

A Dictionary of Roots and Words supposed to have existed in the Indo-European tongue, with the corresponding words and derivatives in the various languages. It can be used without a knowledge of German. No such book, however, is safe to use without careful study of the laws of consonant and vowel changes.

HADLEY: *Essays, Philological and Critical.* New York (Holt & Williams) 1873.

HALE, W. G.: *Cum Constructions.* [Cornell Studies.]

— *The Sequence of Tenses.*

HOFFMAN: *Die Construction der Lateinischen Zeitpartikeln.* Vienna: 1860. [Pamphlet.]

MANN: *Hilfsbüchlein für die Aussprache,* etc. Berlin: 1883.

MEYER, G.: *Griechische Grammatik.* 2d ed. Leipzig: 1885.

MÖLLER: *Handbuch der Klassischen Alterthums-wissenschaft.* Vol. II. *Griechische und Lateinische Sprachwissenschaft* (by Brugmann, Stolz and others).

NEUE: *Formenlehre der Lateinischen Sprache.* Stuttgart: 1875-92.

Storehouse of all Latin forms, 1200 pages, containing the result of late textual criticism. The standard work.

PAPILLON: *A Manual of Comparative Philology, as applied to the Illustration of Greek and Latin Inflections.* Oxford: 1876.

Behind the times, but a convenient synopsis of the doctrine of forms.

ROBY, H. J.: *A Grammar of the Latin Language, from Plautus to Suetonius.* London and New York (Macmillan): Vol. I., 1871; Vol. II., 1873.

Some errors have been pointed out in the "North American Review," January, 1872.

SCHLEICHER: *Compendium der Vergleichenden Grammatik der Indo-Germanischen Sprachen.* 4th ed. 1876.

Antiquated, but indispensable.

SPELMANN, E.: *Die Aussprache des Latein.* Hildbronn: 1885.

SIEVERS, E.: *Grundzüge der Phonetik.* 3d ed. Leipzig: 1885.

VANICEK, A.: *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Lateinischen Sprache.* Leipzig: 1874.

Suggestive, but to be used with caution.

WESTPHAL: *Metrik der Griechen.* 2d ed. 1867. 2 vols.

The great authority on the metrical systems of the ancients, with full literary and musical illustration. A convenient summary, with some modifications, will be found in SCHMIDT'S *Rhythmik und Metrik*, now translated by Prof. J. W. WHITE, and published by the publishers of this book.

WHEELER, B. I.: *Analogy and its Scope in Language.* [Cornell Studies.]

WHITNEY: *Sanskrit Grammar.* Leipzig: 1879.

The best grammar of the Sanskrit, without some knowledge of which language it is difficult to pursue the study of comparative grammar to advantage.

ZEITSCHRIFT für vergleichende Sprachforschung. Edited by Dr. A. KUHN. Vol. I., etc. Berlin: 1851 and subsequent years.

Indispensable to correct theories of individual investigators.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

LATIN GRAMMAR is usually discussed under three heads: 1. Etymology; 2. Syntax; 3. Prosody. Etymology treats of the form of separate words, as either written or spoken; Syntax of their function when joined together as parts of the sentence; Prosody of their arrangement in metrical composition.

PART FIRST.—ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.—*Letters and Sounds.*

Alphabet.

The Latin Alphabet, as the language is usually written, is the same as the English (which, in fact, was borrowed from it), except that it has no *w*.

Properly, it consists, however, of only twenty-three letters: *a* (called *ah*), *b* (*be* [*bay*]), *c* (*ke*), *d* (*de*), *e* (*e* [*eh*]), *f* (*ef*), *g* (*ge*), *h* (*ha*), *i* (*ee*), *k* (*ka*) [see § 6], *l* (*el*), *m* (*em*), *n* (*en*), *o* (*o*), *p* (*pe*), *q* (*koo*), *r* (*er*), *s* (*ess*), *t* (*te*), *u*, *v* (*oo*), *x* (*ix*), *y* (*u* Graeca?), *z* (*zeta*). Of these, *y* and *z* were added in Cicero's time to express the corresponding sounds (*υ* ζ) in borrowed Greek words (cf. Cic. N. D. ii. 93). *i* and *u* (*v*) have a twofold value, which is often in modern writing indicated by a double form: *i*, *j*; *u*, *v*. See § 4.

Classification of the Letters.

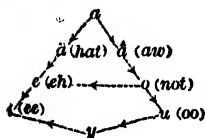
1. The letters are divided, with reference to their sounds, into Vowels (*litterae vocālēs*) and Consonants (*litterae consonantēs*). Two vowels united so as to express one sound are called a Diphthong.

a. The VOWELS are *a, e, i, o, u, y*. The rest of the letters are Consonants. The Diphthongs are *ae (æ), au, ei, eu, œ (œ), ui*, and in Early Latin *ai, oi*, and *ou*.

NOTE.—All the divisions of the letters apply really to the sounds which the letters represent; but as the sounds in Latin very nearly correspond to the letters, no real confusion need arise if both are spoken of without distinction.

b. Vowels are Open (*a, o*), Medial (*e, u*), or Close (*i*), according to the position of the organs in pronouncing them.

NOTE.—The vowel *a*, as in *father*, is the most open (*i.e.* the organs are least constrained in pronouncing it). Starting from this sound, and narrowing the mouth at the same time raising the middle of the tongue, we come through



several gradations not always recognized, but no doubt always more or less existent in speech, to the sound of *e* (as in *eh?*) and *i* (*ee*, as *i* in *machine*). This sound, if enunciated rapidly with a following vowel, passes into the sound of English *y* (consonant). If, on the other hand, the mouth is narrowed up and down, and at the same time the back of the tongue is raised, we come in the same manner to *o* and *u* (*oo* in *foot*). If, starting with *o*, we contract in the first manner, we come through a common German sound (*ø*) to *e*. If, starting from *u*, we do the same, we come to French *u*, German *ü*, Greek *υ*, and Latin *y*. And this sound, in turn, approaches *i*.

These processes may be represented in a vowel scale as above.

2. CONSONANTS. — *a.* *p, b, c (k), q, g, t, d*, as also *ch* and *th*, are called Mutes (Explosives, Momentary Sounds).

These are produced by an entire stoppage of the breath and a subsequent explosion. They are classified as follows: —

1. *p, c (k), q, t, s*, are called Surds (*tenuēs*).

These are without vocal tone.

2. *b, g, d, z*, are called Sonants (*mediae*).

These are accompanied by a slight vocal tone.

3. *ch* and *th* are called Aspirates.

In these a breath follows the explosion. They are found chiefly in words borrowed from the Greek. *ph*, which also was borrowed from the Greek, probably was never sounded as an aspirate in Latin.

b. *m* and *n* are called Nasals.

These are pronounced with the same position of the organs as *b* and *d*, except that the nasal passage is opened instead of closed. A third nasal, *n adulterinum* (like *n* in *in*), corresponding in the same way to *g*, existed in the language, but had no separate sign.

3. From the organs of speech chiefly used in the utterance of the mutes and nasals they are divided into Labials (pronounced with the lips), Palatals (with the palate), and Linguals (with the tongue).

Their relations are seen in the following table:—

	SURD.	SONANT.	ASPIRATE.	NASAL.
<i>Labial.</i>	p	b	wanting	m
<i>Palatal.</i>	o (k), q	g	oh	n (as in <i>ink</i>)
<i>Lingual.</i>	t	d	th	n (as in <i>rent</i>)

a. Other useful special classes of sounds are distinguished as:—

Liquids: l, m, n, r.

Fricatives (Spirants): f, ph, th (not aspirate, as in *thin*), h, s, z.

Sibilants: s, z.

Double Consonants: x (cs), z (ds).

Semi-vowels: i, v (see § 4).

b. h is merely a breathing.

4. SEMI-VOWELS.—i and v (u) before a vowel in the same syllable are consonants and have the sound of English consonant y and w respectively. (Cf. i and u in *pinion*, *issuing*, rapidly pronounced.) They are sometimes called *Semi-Vowels*.

NOTE 1.—The Latin alphabet had no separate signs for the semi-vowels; but used i for both vowel and consonant i, and v or u (without distinction) for both vowel and consonant v (u). The character j was unknown in classical times, and u was but a graphic variation of v. In mediæval Latin j and v came to be used to indicate the consonant sounds of i and v (u), and this usage is often followed by modern editors in writing small letters. In writing capitals, however, the forms J and U are avoided. Thus iuuenis, iuuenis, or iuuenis, — but IUVENIS.

In this book vowel and consonant i are both represented by the same character, i; but v is used for the consonant, u for the vowel sound of v (u). Thus iustus, vir, iuuenis.

NOTE 2.—The English sounds of j and v did not exist in Latin in classical times, though consonant v (u) began no doubt to approach English v in many persons' speech.

NOTE 3.—In the combinations qu, gu, and sometimes su, u forms a compound sound with the preceding consonant, and is reckoned neither as a vowel nor a consonant. Thus aqua, anguis, cōsuētus. (Cf. English *quill*, *anguish*, *suave*.)

5. The Romans distinguished Long vowels from Short in sound, but had no regular characters to express the difference. At various times attempts were made to mark this distinction, but none came into general use.

In modern times short vowels are marked thus: *ă, ĕ*; and long, thus: *ā, ē*; those that may be pronounced either long or short, thus: *ā, ĕ*. In this book all simple vowels not marked are supposed to be short. But final *o* and *i* are marked according to their prevailing length or shortness, though they sometimes vary from this quantity in poetry.

NOTE.—Vowels and consonants are not separated by any sharp line from each other, but form a continuous scale from the most open vowel (*a*) to the mutes, for which the mouth is entirely closed. The general tendency of phonetic changes in language has been from the two extremes towards the middle.

Early Forms.

6. The character *c* (surd palatal) originally stood for the sonant palatal (*g*). (Hence, *a, b, c*, but Alpha, Beta, Gamma.) This force it always retained in the abbreviations *C.* (for *Gāius*), and *Cn.* (*Gnaeus*).

NOTE.—In prehistoric times these two sounds were confounded, and *c* was used for both. The character *k* (surd palatal) was thus supplanted, except in a few words and abbreviations: as, *Kal.* (*Kalendae*), *Karthāgō*.

About 300 B.C. *g* was invented to distinguish the sonant again, but was put in the place in the alphabet once occupied by *z*, which at that time had dropped out of use. When *z* was afterwards restored (in Greek words), it was put at the end of the alphabet.

7. Till after the age of Augustus the use of *u* (vowel) after *u* (*u*) was avoided. This was done either by preserving *o*, when but for this tendency it would have become *u*, as in *voltus* (but *cultus*), (but *dominus*), *suōs* (but *meus*), *quom* (but *tum*), *reliq̄s* (*relictus*); or in case of *quu*, by writing *cu*, as in *cūr* (for *quōr*), *ecus* (for *equos*, later *equus*), *cum* (for *quom*, very late *quum*), *relicus* (for *reliquos*, later *reliquus*). Compare *c* for *qu* in *cot̄idiſ*, written for *quot̄idiſ*.

Phonetic Variations.

8. Variations of sound are of two classes:—

1. Inherited differences of form in the same root (see § 22).

NOTE.—These variations of form in words connected with each other by derivation occur in other languages akin to Latin with great regularity and marked significance. They lost their importance in Latin, but have left traces throughout the language, so that its structure cannot be explained without taking them into account.

2. Unconscious alterations of sounds developed in course of time in the language itself.

NOTE.—Such alterations arise in every language after long use from careless articulation and an unconscious tendency to secure an easier utterance; and they depend very much upon accent. This process is often called *phonetic decay* or *phonetic change*.

9. Inherited differences appear in variations of vowels, and less commonly in liquids connected with vowels.

a. Vowels vary between long and short of the same kind: as, *emō*, *I buy*, *ēmī*, *I bought*; *legō*, *I read*, *lēgī*, *I read*; *tegō*, *I cover*, *tēgula*, *a tile*; *sonō*, *I sound*, *pērsōna*, *a mask* (as sounded through); *regō*, *I rule*, *rēx*, *a king*; *dux*, *a leader*, *dūcō*, *I lead*.

b. Vowels vary in quality: as, *penō*, *I weigh*, *pondus*, *weight*; *tegō*, *I cover*, *toga*, *a robe*; *fīdus*, *faithful*, *foedus*, *a treaty*. (Cf. *fall*, *fell*; *bind*, *band*, *bound*.)

c. Vowels vary between a short vowel of one quality and a long vowel or diphthong of another: *miser*, *wretched*, *maestus*, *sad*; *dare*, *to give*, *dōnum*, *gift*; *agō*, *I lead*, *ēgī*, *I led*.

d. Liquids are transposed with vowels, sometimes with change of the vowel: as, *spernō*, *I spurn*, *sprēvī*, *I spurned*; *sternō*, *I strew*, *strāvī*, *I strewed*; *ēgūō*, *I beget*, (g)nātus, *a son*; *fulgeō*, *I shine*, *flagrō*, *I burn*.

10. Unconscious changes occur in both vowels and consonants.

a. Vowels and diphthongs are weakened, usually in the directions marked on the vowel-scale (see page 2): as, *factus*, *made*, *cōnfectus*, *made up*; *libet* (old) *it pleases*, *libet* (later); *āgmen*, *a march*, *āgminis*, *of a march*; *capiō*, *I take*, *incipiō*, *I begin*; *legō*, *I pick*, *colligō*, *I gather*; *caedō*, *I cut*, *cecidī*, *I have cut*; *saliō*, *I leap*, *exsultō*, *I leap up and down* (for joy); *pellō*, *I drive*, *pulsus*, *driven*; *servos*, *a slave* (early), *aervus*, *a slave* (later); *optumus*, *optimus* (see § 12. d); *eboris*, *of ivory*, *eburneus*, *made of ivory*; *vortō* (early), *I turn*, *vertō* (later), *I turn*.

NOTE.—When vowels seem to be changed contrary to the direction of the vowel-scale, either both are changed in different degrees from some common vowel higher up the scale, or the change is due to some special cause: as, *lōns*, *euntis* (for *telons*,¹ *telontis*); *volentem*, but *voluntās* (for *volont*); *similis*, *simul* (for *simollis*, etc.); *auceps*, *aucupis*.

b. Two vowels coming together are very often contracted: as, *oōgō* for *co-agō*; *obiit* for *obiit*; *nīl* for *nihil* (see § 347. c); *dē-beō* for *de-hibeō* (*de-habeō*, see a, above); *rūrsus*, *re-versus* (*re-vorsus*, see c below); *amārat* (for *amāverat*); *cūctus* (for *conjunctus*); *sūrgō* (for *sub-regō*).

¹ Form not found.

c. Vowels are often entirely lost between two consonants (*syncope*): as, *audācter* for *audāciter*; *iūrgium* for *iūrigium*; *disciplīna* for *discipulīna*; *caldus* (popular), *calidus* (literary); or at the end of a word: as, *dīc* for *dīce*; *satin* for *satisne*; *hōruno* for *hōrunoe*.

d. Vowels are rarely inserted between two consonants in the effort to pronounce a difficult combination of sounds (cf. *ellum* for *elm*); as, *Heroulēs* for *Herolēs*, *drachuma* for *drachma*, *ager* for *agr(o)* (see § 38).

NOTE. — In many cases in which a vowel is sometimes found it is impossible to tell whether it is original or developed: as, *saeculum* and *saeculum*.

e. Vowels found long in the earlier language are sometimes shortened later: as, *fidēī* (later *fideī*), *amāt* (later *amat*: § 375. g⁶).

11. a. Consonants are unconsciously substituted one for another in accordance with regular tendencies of the language. Thus: —

1. r for s between two vowels or before m or n: as, *eram* (root *es*), *generis* (for *†geneais*, from *genus*), *maereō* (cf. *maestus*), *dirimō* (*dis-emō*), *diribeō* (*dis-habeō*), *veterius* (*vetus-nus*), *carmen* (*†casmen*, cf. *Casmēna*). (Compare Eng. *was*, *were*.)

2. s for d or t, making an easier combination: as, *cāsus* (for *cad-tus*), *oēssum* (*cēd-tum*), *mānus* (*man-tus*), *passus* (*pad-tus* and *pat-tus*), *equester* (*equet-ter*).

b. Consonants are omitted: as, *exāmen* (*exāgmen*), *caementum* (*caed-mentum*), *sēmēstris* (*ses-mēstris*), *lūna* (*luc-na*), *dēnī* (*†deo-nī*), *hōo* (abl. for *hōd-ce*), *autumnus* (*auctumnus*, root *AUG*), *fulmen* (*fulg-men*), *pērgō* (*per-regō*), *līs* (*stīīs*), *cōr* (*†cord*), *lāo* (*laot-*), *pēs* (*†pede*).

1. Especially h: as, *praebeō* (*prae-habeō*), *vēmēns* (for *vehemēns*).

2. And consonant i and v: as, *cōniciō* (*con-iaciō*), *prōraus* (*prōvorsus*).

3. Also s at the end of a word after a short vowel.

NOTE. — This is limited to early Latin and colloquial usage: *plēnu(s) fidēī*, *quāllist* (*quāllis est*).

c. Consonants are unconsciously inserted in passing from one sound to another: as, *sūmō*, *I take*, *sūmpsi*, *I took*, *sūmptus*, *taken* (for *sūm-si*, *sūm-tus*); *hiemps*, *winter*, *hiemis*, *of winter*. Cf. *Thompson* (*Fam's son*).

NOTE. — These are called *Parasitic sounds*.

d. Consonants are transposed: *miscēō*, *mīxtus* (for *miso-tus*).

e. Consonants and vowels are unconsciously changed (*dissimilation*) to avoid a repetition of the same sound in two successive syllables: *parfīa* (for *parfīa*, from *Palēs*), *merīdiēs* (for *mēdi-diēs*), *pietās* (for *†piitās*, as in *cāritās*).

NOTE. — In some cases this principle prevents changes which would take place according to other tendencies of speech.

f. A consonant is changed by the influence of a neighboring sound, —

1. Into the same sound as the neighbor (*complete assimilation*): *as*, *cēssi* (*cēd-sī*), *summus* (*sup-mus*), *sella* (*sed-la*), *puella* (*puer(u)-la*), *pressi* (*prem-sī*), *occidō* (*ob-cadō*), *mitissimus* (for *mitius-timus*).

2. Into a sound of the same organ or the same quality (or both) as the neighbor (*partial assimilation*) (see table of mutes, § 3): *as*, *conterō* (*com-terō*, labial to lingual), *scriptus* (*scrib-tus*, sonant to surd), *segmentum* (*†secmentum*, surd to sonant), *imperō* (*in-perō*, lingual to labial).

NOTE. — Sometimes the first consonant governs (*regressive assimilation*), sometimes the second (*progressive assimilation*).

3. These changes affect especially the final consonant of the preposition in Compounds: *as*, *accēdō* (*ad-cēdō*), *afficiō* (*ad-faciō*), *occurō* (*ob-ourō*), *corruō* (*com-ruō*), *efferō* (*eo-ferō*), *suppōnō* (*sub-pōnō*).

NOTE. — The rules for this assimilation may be given as follows: *ad* is assimilated before *c*, *g*, *p*, *t*; less regularly before *l*, *r*, *s*, and rarely before *m*; while before *f*, *n*, *q*, the form *ad* is to be preferred. *ab* is not assimilated, but may take the form *a*, *au*, or *abs*. In *com* (*con*, *co*), *m* is retained before *b*, *p*, *m*; is assimilated before *l*, *n*, *r*; is changed to *n* before *c*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *j*, *q*, *s*, *v*; sometimes becomes *n* before *p*; is sometimes assimilated (otherwise *n*) before *l* and *r*; *com* loses the final *m* in *cōnectō*, *cōniveō*, *cōnitor*, *cōnubium*. *in* usually changes *n* to *m* before *b*, *m*, *p*, before *l* the better orthography retains *n*. *ob* and *sub* are assimilated before *c*, *f*, *g*, *p*, and sometimes before *m*; *sub* also before *r*; and, in early Latin, *b* of these prepositions sometimes becomes *p* before *s* or *t*. The inseparable *amb* loses *b* before a consonant, and *m* is sometimes assimilated. *circum* often loses *m* before *l*. *s* of *dis* before a vowel becomes *r*, and before a consonant is lost or assimilated. The *d* of *red* and *sēd* is generally lost before a consonant. In most of these cases the later editions prefer the unaltered forms throughout; but the changes given above have good authority. Others, which are corruptions of the middle ages (as *assum* for *adsum*), had better be avoided. Lexicons vary in the spelling of these combinations.

12. Variations of Spelling occur in manuscripts and inscriptions, and especially in modern editions. In the following lists the better forms are put first; objectionable forms in parenthesis.

NOTE.—These variations are generally mere mistakes in spelling. Many of them are due to the practice of writing from dictation, by which most MS. copies of the classics were made. A single reader dictated to several copyists, whose spelling was often corrupt. The tendency of the best editions is to restore, as normal, the forms of the late Republic or early Empire (the time of Cicero or Augustus),—so far as these may be determined from inscriptions, etc.,—but to preserve, in each author, any peculiarities that mark the spelling of his time. The choice among forms appears often to be arbitrary, for inscriptions of the same period sometimes differ considerably.

a. The letters and sounds of *ci* and *ti* are interchanged before a vowel *nāntiō* (*nānciō*), *contiō* (*conciō*), *diciō* (*ditiō*), *condiciō* (*conditiō*), *suspiciō* (*suspitiō*), *tribūncius* (*tribūnitius*).

NOTE.—This substitution began very early (in a few words) while the *c* still had the sound of *k*. But generally it belongs to a later period of the language, and is due to the disturbing influence of consonant *i*; *nātiō* (*natio*) became *nacho*, or *nasio*, or *nasho*. It is this disturbance that has produced the modern sibilant sound of *c*, as well as that of *ti*: as, *nation* (through the French) from *nātiō*; *species*, from *speciēs*.

b. Several words are written sometimes with and sometimes without an initial *h*: as, *harēna* or (*arēna*), *erus* or (*herus*), *umerus* or (*humerus*), *fīmor* or (*hūmor*).

c. In later Latin, *ē*, *ae*, and *oe* became alike in sound (like *a* in *fate*), and hence they are often confounded in writing: as, *faenus* (*fēnus*, *foenus*).

d. Other words variously spelled are: *adulēscēns*, *adolēscēns*; *ahēneus*, *aēneus*; *ānulus*, *annulus*; *artus*, (*arctus*); *autumnus*, (*anotumnus*); *caelum* (*coelum*); *cum*, *quom*, (*quum*); *epistula*, *epistola*; *exsul*, *exul*; *fēcundus* (*foecundus*); *fēmina*, (*foemina*); *lītera*, *littera*; *libet*, *libet*; *libīdō*, *libidō*; *mīlia*, *millia*; *nequīquam*, *nequicquam*, *nequidquam*; *paulus*, *pauillus*; *quīloquam*, *quidquam*; *umquam*, *unquam*; *vertō*, *vortō*; *volnus*, *vulnus*; *proelium*, (*praelium*); *voltus*, *vultus*; *servos*, *servus*. Also the gerundive-form *-endus* or *-undus*, and the superlative *-imus* or

e. At the end of a few words *d* was anciently written *t*: *set* for *sed*, *aput* for *apud*.

f. Some variations in spelling mark the changes in §§ 10 and 11.

Combinations.

13. Two words are often united in writing, and sometimes in sound. Thus, —

a. Conjunctions or other particles and pronouns are sometimes connected: as in *etenim*, *unusquisque*, *iamdudum*, *iamdū*, *siquis*, *siquidem*; also a few short phrases, as, *quārē*, *quamobrem*, *rēspūblica*, *iūsiſſurandum*, *paterfamiliās*.

b. The verb *est*, *is*, is sometimes joined with the preceding word, especially in the old poets, when the two would be united by elision: as, *homōst*, *periculumst*, *ausust*, *quālist* (*quālis est*) (like *thou'rt*, *I've*).

c. Similar contractions are found in *vin'* (*vīsne*), *scīn'* (*scīsne*), *sīs* (*sī vīs*), *sōdēs* (*sī audēs*), *sūltis* (*sī vultis*). So in English, *don't*, *won't* (*wol not*).

Syllables.

14. In Latin every word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs.

a. In the division of words into syllables a single consonant between two vowels is to be written and pronounced with the latter.

NOTE.—This rule applies also to *v* and consonant *i*.

b. This rule is sometimes extended to double consonants, or any combination of consonants which can be used to begin a word: as, *ho-spes*, *mā-gnus*, *dī-xit*.

c. In compounds, the parts should be separated: as, *ab-eat*, *ob-lātus*.

d. A syllable preceded by a vowel in the same word is called *pure*, as *pi-us*; a syllable preceded by a consonant, *impure*, as *oñ-stat*.

e. Any syllable ending with a vowel or diphthong is called *open*; all others are called *close*. Thus in *pa-ter* the first syllable is open, the second close.

Kindred Forms.

15. In English words derived from the Latin, the original letters are retained (as *ambition* from *ambitiō*).¹ But in native English words which are cognate with the Latin (see Appendix), the original sounds are rarely represented by the same letters in the two languages, but usually by closely related letters which regularly correspond.

¹ Many words, however, coming through the French follow French changes: as, *fashion*, *façon* (*factiō*); *chivalry*, *cheval* (*caballus*); *chimney*, *cheminée* (*caminus*).

LATIN	
c, k, qu	H, WH: quī, <i>who</i> ; cōs, <i>hone</i> ; carpō, <i>harvest</i> ; calō (kalēdāe), <i>hail</i> ; cord-, <i>heart</i> .
g	K, CH: genus, <i>kin</i> ; genū, <i>knee</i> ; gūstō, <i>choose</i> .
t	TH: tū, <i>thou</i> ; trēs, <i>three</i> ; tenuis, <i>thin</i> .
T or D (rarely): stāre, <i>stand</i> ; torreō, <i>dry</i> .	
d	T: duō, <i>two</i> ; dēns, <i>tooth</i> ; sedeō, <i>sit</i> .
p	F: pater, <i>father</i> ; pullus, <i>foal</i> ; paucī, <i>few</i> .
f (for bh)	B: ferō (φέρω), <i>bear</i> ; frāter (φράτηρ), <i>brother</i> .
f (for dh)	D: forēs (θύρα), <i>doors</i> ; fera (θήρ), <i>deer</i> .
h	G: vehō, <i>wagon</i> ; haedus, <i>goat</i> ; hostis, <i>guest</i> .
i cons., v	Y, W: iugum, <i>yoke</i> ; ovis, <i>eve</i> .

Sometimes a consonant lost in the Latin appears in the English word. Thus, (s)niv-, *snow*; (h)ānser, *goose*; (s)nervo-, *snare*.

Sounds of the Letters.

NOTE.—The pronunciation of Latin is different in different countries. Among us, it usually follows one of two ways, which may be called the *Roman* (or *Phonetic*) and the *English* method.

16. By the Roman (or Phonetic) method, *every letter has always the same sound*.

NOTE.—A long vowel in our enunciation almost necessarily acquires a slightly different quality from a short one, as in *boot* and *foot*, *machine* and *holiest*. See also **bs** below.

VOWELS:	ā as in <i>father</i> ;	ā as in <i>idea</i> .
	ē as <i>eh?</i> (prolonged); <i>they</i> ;	ē as <i>eh?</i> (clipped).
	ī as in <i>machine</i> ;	ī as in <i>holiest</i> .
	ō as in <i>holy</i> ;	ō as in <i>obey</i> .
	ū as <i>oo</i> in <i>boot</i> ;	ū as <i>oo</i> in <i>foot</i> .
	y between <i>u</i> and <i>i</i> (German <i>ü</i>).	
DIPHTHONGS:	ae like <i>ay</i> ; oe like <i>oy</i> ; au like <i>ow</i> in <i>now</i> .	
	ei as in <i>eight</i> ; eu as <i>eh'oo</i> ; ui as <i>oo'ce</i> .	
	c and g are always hard, as in <i>come</i> , <i>get</i> .	
	s is always sharp, as in <i>sea</i> , <i>lips</i> .	
	i cons. is like <i>y</i> in <i>young</i> ; v (cons. u), like <i>w</i> in <i>wing</i> ;	
CONSONANTS, as in English, except that:	qu as in English.	
	bs is like <i>ps</i> ; ch like <i>k</i> ; ph like <i>f</i> .	
	n before s or f was combined with the preceding vowel somewhat as French nasal <i>n</i> , making the vowel long.	
	s as <i>ds</i> in <i>adse</i> .	
	th as in <i>rathole</i> , later as in <i>thin</i> .	

NOTE 1.—In the ancient pronunciation, *ph* was distinguished from *f* by being sounded with the lips only, instead of lip and teeth.

NOTE 2.—In many words (as *abietis, tenuis*), *i* and *u* sometimes had the consonant sound, though usually in such words reckoned as vowels.

NOTE 3.—The diphthong *ae* was anciently sounded as above, but early in the time of the Empire acquired from popular or provincial use the long sound of *e*.

NOTE 4.—When two consonants come together (as in *condō, postea*), or a consonant is doubled (as in *annus, ūllus, mittō*), care should be taken to pronounce both letters distinctly. It was doubtless this distinct pronunciation of consonants that made a syllable with a short vowel long by Position (§ 18. d).

17. By the English method, the letters have the same sounds as in English; but —

a. Final *a* is pronounced as in *America*; but in the monosyllables *ā, dā, quā, stā*, sometimes as in *pay*; *e* in open syllables as in *me*, in close as in *men*; *i* in open syllables as in *Hi!* in close as in *pin*; *o* in open syllables as in *tone*, in close as in *not*; *u* as in *pull* or as in *hull*, without any definite rules, as *ūllus* (like *gull us*), but *fullō* (like *full oh*); *y* like *i*.

NOTE.—In this method of pronunciation, syllables are often treated as open or close according to the position of the accent: as, *i'-ter* (open), *it-i'-neris* (close).

b. The diphthongs *ae, oe*, are pronounced like *e*; *au* like *aw*; *eu* like *ew*; *ei* and *ui* like *i* in *kite*; *es* and (in plural words) *ōs* at the end of a word as in *disease, morose*.

c. The consonants *o* and *g* are made soft (like *s* and *j*) before *e, i, y, ae, oe, eu*; *oh* is always hard, as in *chasm, chemist*.

NOTE.—The English method should be retained in Roman names in English, as *Julius Cæsar*; and in familiar quotations, as *e pluribus unum*; *vrba voce*; *vice versa*; *a fortiori*; *veni, vidi, vici*, etc.

Quantity and Accent.

18. Vowels are long or short (as affecting their pronunciation) only by nature. Syllables (as affecting accent and metrical value) are long or short, according to their vowel, but are also made long by Position through the obstruction of consonants. The length or shortness in both cases is called *Quantity* (cf. § 347).

NOTE.—Some of the rules of Quantity affect length by nature only, some length by position only, and some both.

a. A vowel before another vowel or *h* is short: as in *via, nihil*.

b. A diphthong is long: as in *ædēs, fœdus*. So, also, a vowel derived from a diphthong: as, *exclūdō (ex-claudō)*.

c. A vowel formed by contraction is long: as, *nīl (nihīl)*.

d. A syllable in which a vowel is followed by two consonants (except a mute with *l* or *r*), or a double consonant (*z*, *x*), is long by Position; as in *pingō*, *saxum*, *Mezentius*. Before *nf* and *ns*, *gn* and *gm*, and *i* consonant the vowel itself becomes long by nature: as in *inferō*, *praesēns*, *māgnus*, *āgmen*, *hūius*.

e. A syllable in which a short vowel is followed by a mute with *l* or *r* is common; *i.e.* it may be long in verse: as in *alacris*, *latebrae*.

f. A vowel before *nd*, *nt* is regularly short by nature: as, *amānt*, *amāndus* from *amāre*.

NOTE.—A vowel is lengthened before *i* cons. because another *i* (vowel) is developed as a vanish; thus *ā(i)yo* becomes *āiō*.

19. In Latin the accent in words of more than one syllable is on the Penult or Antepenult.

DEFINITION: The Penult is the last syllable but one; the Antepenult, the last but two.

a. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first syllable: *Rō'ma*, *ve'hō*, *ī'pse*.

b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the Penult, if that is long: as, *amī'cus*, *praesen'tis*; if it is short or common, on the Antepenult: as, *dō'minus*, *a'lacris*, *la'tebrae*, *contī'nūō*, *praete'ritum*, *dissooiā'bilis*.

NOTE.—In words of more than four syllables a secondary accent usually arises at a convenient distance from the main accent: as, *nāvigā'tiō'nibus*, *pecū'liā'ria*.

c. When an Enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether long or short: as, *dēā'que*, *āmārē've*, *tībī'ne*, *itā'que* (*and . . . so*), as distinguished from *ī'tāque* (*therefore*). So (according to some) *ex'inde*, *eo'quando*, etc.

d. EXCEPTIONS: 1. Certain apparent compounds of *faciō* retain the accent of the simple verb: as, *benefā'cit*, *calefā'cit* (see § 169. *a*) (These were not true compounds, but phrases.)

2. In the second declension the genitive and vocative of nouns in *-us*, and the genitive of those in *-ium* retain the accent of the nominative: as, *Cornē'II*, *Vergī'II*, *inge'nī* (see § 40. *c*).

3. Certain words which have lost a final vowel retain the accent of the complete words: as, *illī'c* for *illī'ce*, *prōdū'c* for *prōdūce*, *sati'n* for *sati'ane*.

NOTE.—The ancients recognized three accents, *acute* (´), *grave* (`), and *circumflex* (^). Accent no doubt originally consisted in a change of pitch,—elevation, depression, or both combined,—and not merely in a more forcible utterance (*ictus*). But in Latin this pitch accent had been supplanted by a stress accent in historical times.

CHAPTER II.—*Words and their Forms.*

Inflection.

20. INFLECTION is a change made in the form of a word, to show its grammatical relations.

a. Inflectional changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination: as, *vōx*, a voice; *vōcis*, of a voice; *vocō*, I call; *vocat*, he calls; *vocāvit*, he has called; *tangit*, he touches; *tetigit*, he touched.

b. Terminations of inflection had originally independent meanings which are now obscured. They correspond nearly to the use of prepositions, auxiliaries, and personal pronouns in English; thus, in *vocat*, the termination is equivalent to *he* or *she*; in *vōcis*, to the preposition *of* or the like; and in *vocet* the change of vowel signifies a change of mood.

c. Inflectional changes in the body of a verb usually denote relations of tense or mood, and correspond to the use of auxiliary verbs in English: as, *frangit*, he breaks or is breaking; *frēgit*, he broke or has broken; *mordet*, he bites; *momordit*, he bit.¹

Root and Stem.

21. The body of a word, to which the terminations are attached, is called the STEM.²

The Stem contains the *idea* of the word without relations; but, except in the first part of a compound, it cannot be used without some termination to express them. Thus the stem *vōcō-* denotes *voice*, with *-s* added it becomes *vōx*, a voice or the voice, as the subject or agent of an action; with *-is* it becomes *vōcis*, and signifies *of a voice*. The stem is in many forms so united with the termination that a comparison with other forms is necessary to determine it.

¹ The only proper inflections of verbs are those of the personal endings, and the changes here referred to are strictly changes of Stem, but have become a part of the system of inflections.

² The name Stem is sometimes incorrectly given to that part of a word — as *serv-* in *servus* — which is unchanged in inflection. This may be called the *base*.

22. A Root is the simplest form attainable by analysis of a word into its component parts. Such a form contains the main idea of the word in a very general sense, and is common also to other words either in the same or kindred languages.¹

Thus the root of the stem *vōcō-* is *vōc*, which does not mean *to call*, or *I call*, or *calling*, but merely expresses vaguely the idea of calling, and cannot be used as a part of speech without terminations. With *ā-* it becomes *vocā-*, the stem of *vocāre* (*to call*); with *āvī-* it is the stem of *vocāvī* (*he called*); with *ātō-* it becomes the stem of *vocātus* (*called*); with *ātiōn-* it becomes the stem of *vocātiōnis* (*of a calling*). With its vowel lengthened it becomes the stem of *vōx* (*a voice: that by which we call*). This stem, again, with *-ālīs* added, means *belonging to a voice*; with *-ūla*, *a little voice*.

NOTE.—In inflected languages, words are built up from Roots, which at a very early time were used alone to express ideas, as is now done in Chinese. Roots are modified into Stems, which, by inflection, become Words. The process by which roots are modified, in the various forms of derivatives and compounds, is called *Stem-building*. The whole of this process is originally one of composition, by which significant endings are added one after another to forms capable of pronunciation and conveying a meaning.

Roots had long ceased to be recognized as such before the Latin existed as a separate language. Consequently the forms which we assume as Latin roots never really existed in Latin, but are the representatives of forms used earlier.

23. The Stem is sometimes the same as the root: as in *duc-is*, *of a leader*, *fer-t*, *he bears*; but it is more frequently formed from the root—

1. By changing or lengthening its vowel: as in *scob-a*, *sawdust* (*SCAB, shave*); *rēg-is*, *of a king* (*REG, direct*); *vōc-is*, *of a voice* (*VOC, call*).
2. By the addition of a simple suffix (originally another root): as in *fug-a*, *flight* (*FUG + a*); *fugi-a*, *you fly* (*FUG + ya*); *pangō*, *I fasten* (*PAG + na*).
3. By two or more of these methods: as in *duō-it*, *he leads* (*DUC + a*), *tollō*, *I raise* (*TUL + ya*).
4. By derivation and composition, following the laws of development peculiar to the language. (See Chap. VIII.)

24. Inflectional terminations are variously modified by combination with the final vowel or consonant of the Stem, leading to the various forms of Declension and Conjugation (see § 32).

¹ For example, the root *STA* is found in the Sanskrit *tisthāmi*, Greek *ἵστημι*, Latin *stare* and *stāre*, German *stehen*, and English *stand*. (See Chap. VIII.)

NOTE.—A termination beginning with a vowel is called an *open affix*; one beginning with a consonant, a *close affix*. When a close affix is joined to a consonant-stem, there is usually either a euphonic change, as in *rēxi* for *reg-ai*, or a vowel appears, as in *rēg-i-bus*. But, in most cases, what is called a connecting vowel really belongs to the stem, as in *vocā-mus*, *regi-mus* (see § 123).

The Parts of Speech.

25. Words are divided into nine PARTS OF SPEECH: Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Participles, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

a. A Noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea: as, *Caesar*; *Rōma*, *Rome*; *domus*, *a house*; *virtūs*, *virtue*. Names of persons and places are PROPER NOUNS; other nouns are called COMMON.

b. An Adjective is a word that attributes a quality: as, *bonus*, *good*; *fortis*, *brave*, *strong*.

NOTE.—Etymologically, there is no difference between a noun and an adjective, both being formed alike. So, too, all names originally attribute quality, and any name can still be used to attribute a quality. Thus, *King William* distinguishes this William from other Williams, by the attribute of royalty expressed in the name *King*.

c. A Pronoun is a word used to distinguish a person, place, thing, or idea without either naming or describing it: as, *is*, *he*; *qui*, *who*; *nōs*, *we*.

d. A Verb is a word which asserts something: as, *sum*, *I am*; *amat*, *he loves*.

NOTE.—In all modern speech the verb is usually the only word that asserts anything, and a verb is therefore supposed to be necessary to complete an assertion. Strictly, however, any adjective or noun may, by attributing a quality or giving a name, make a complete assertion. In the infancy of language there could have been no other means of asserting, as the verb is of comparatively late development.

e. A Participle is a word that attributes a quality like an adjective, but being derived from a verb, retains in some degree the power of the verb to assert: as, *Caesar cōnsul creātus*, *Caesar having been elected consul*; *Caesar Pompēium metuēns*, *Caesar fearing Pompey*.

f. An Adverb is a word used to express the time, place, or manner of an assertion or attribute: as, *splendidē mendāx*, *gloriously false*; *hodiē nātus*, *born to-day*.

NOTE.—These same functions are often performed by cases (see §§ 148, 149) of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and by phrases or sentences. In fact, all adverbs were originally cases or phrases, but have become specialized by use.

g. A Preposition is a word which shows the relation between a noun and some other word or words in the same sentence: *per agrōs* it, *he goes over the fields*; *ē plūribus unum*, *one out of many*.

NOTE.—Prepositions are specialized adverbs (cf. § 152). The relations expressed by prepositions were earlier expressed by cases.

h. A Conjunction is a word which connects words, phrases, or sentences without affecting their relations: *as, et, and; sed, but*.

NOTE.—Some adverbs also connect words, etc., like conjunctions. These are called Adverbial Conjunctions or Conjunctive Adverbs: *as, ubi, where; dōnec, until*.

i. Interjections are mere exclamations. They are not strictly to be classed as parts of Speech: *heus, halloo! ō, oh!*

NOTE.—They sometimes express an emotion which affects some other things mentioned, and so have a connection like other words: *as, vae victis, woe to the conquered!* (alas for the conquered!)

26. Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Participles have inflections of *declension*, to denote gender, number, and case. Verbs have inflections of *conjugation*, to denote voice, mood, tense, number, and person.

NOTE.—Adjectives are often said to have inflections of *comparison* to indicate degree. These inflections are, however, properly stem-formations made by derivation (cf. § 89).

27. Those parts of speech which are not inflected are called **PARTICLES**: these are Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

NOTE.—The term Particle is sometimes limited to such words as *num, -ne, en* (*interrogative*), *nōn, nō* (*negative*); *si* (*conditional*), etc., which are used simply to indicate the form or construction of a sentence.

Gender.

28. The genders distinguished in Latin are three: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

a. The gender of Latin nouns is either *natural* or *grammatical*. Natural gender is distinction as to the sex of the object denoted: *as, puer, boy; puella, girl; dōnum, gift*.

NOTE.—Many nouns have both a masculine and feminine form to distinguish sex: *as, corvus, crow, stag, doe, cliēns, cliēns, client; victor, victrix, conqueror*.

Many designations of persons (as *nauta, sailor*), usually though not necessarily male, are always treated as masculine.

b, Grammatical gender¹ is a formal distinction as to sex where no actual sex exists in the object. It is shown by the form of the adjective joined with the noun: as, *lapis magnus* (M.), *a great stone*; *manus mea* (F.), *my hand*.

NOTE.—A few neuter nouns are used to designate persons as belonging to a class: as, *mancipium tuum*, *your slave*.

Names of *classes* or *bodies* of persons may be of any gender: as, *exercitus* (M.), *aciēs* (F.), and *agmen* (N.), *army*; *operæ* (F. pl.), *workmen*; *cōpiæ* (F. pl.), *troops*.

Many pet names of girls (as *Pægnium*, *Glycōrium*) are neuter.

General Rules of Gender.

29. 1. Names of Male beings, Rivers, Winds, Months, and Mountains, are *masculine*.

2. Names of Female beings, Cities, Countries, Plants, Trees, and Gems, of many Animals (especially Birds), and of most abstract Qualities, are *feminine*.

NOTE.—The gender of most of the above may be recognized by their terminations, according to the rules given under the several declensions.

a. A few names of Rivers ending in -a (as *Allia*), with the Greek names *Lēthē* and *Styx*, are feminine; others are variable or uncertain.

Some names of Mountains take the gender of their termination: as, *Alpēs* (F.), *the Alps*; *Sōracte* (N.).

Names of Months are properly adjectives, the masculine noun *mēnsis*, *month*, being understood: as, *Iānuārius*, *January*.

b. Some names of Towns and Countries are masculine: as, *Sulmō*, *Gabiī* (plur.); or neuter, as *Tarentum*, *Illyricum*.

A few names of Plants and Gems follow the gender of their termination: as, *centaurēum* (N.), *centaury*; *acanthus* (M.), *bearsfoot*; *opalus* (M.), *opal*.

¹ What we call *grammatical gender* is in most cases the product of the imagination in a rude age, when language was in the course of growth. Thus a *River* was seen, or a *Wind* was felt, as a *living creature*, violent and strong, and so is masculine; and the fable of *Atlas* shows how similar living attributes were ascribed to *Mountains*, which, in the northern fables, are the bones of giants. Again, the *Earth*, or a country or city, seems the *mother* of its progeny; the *Tree* shelters and ripens its fruit, as a brooding bird her nest of eggs; and, to this day, a *Ship* is always referred to by a feminine pronoun.

Again, in the East and South, the *Sun*, from its fierce heat and splendor, is masculine, and its paler attendant, the *Moon*, feminine; while, among Northern nations, the *Sun* (perhaps for its comforting warmth) is feminine, and the *Moon* (the appointer of works and days), masculine. The rules of grammatical gender only repeat and extend these early workings of the fancy.

c. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, terms or phrases used as nouns, and words quoted merely for their form, are neuter: as, *fās*, *right*; *nihil*, *nothing*; *gummī*, *gum*; *scire tuum*, *your knowledge (to know)*; *triste valē*, *a sad farewell*; *hōc ipsum diū*, *this very "long."*

30. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine, according to the sex of the object. These are said to be of Common Gender: as, *exsul*, *exile*; *bōs*, *ox* or *cow*.

a. If a noun signifying a thing without life may be either masculine or feminine, — as, *diēs*, *day*; *finis*, *end*, — it is sometimes said to be of Doubtful Gender.

b. Several names of animals have a grammatical gender, independent of sex. These are called Epicene. Thus *lepus*, *hare*, is always masculine, and *vulpēs*, *fox*, is always feminine. To denote a male fox we may say, *vulpēs mascula*; a female hare, *lepus fēmina*.

Number and Case.

31. Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles are declined in two Numbers, *singular* and *plural*; and in six Cases, *nominative*, *genitive*, *dative*, *accusative*, *vocative*, *ablative*.

a. The Nominative is the case of the Subject of a sentence.

b. The Genitive may generally be translated by the English Possessive, or by the Objective with the preposition *of*.

c. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object (§ 177). It may usually be translated by the Objective with the preposition *to* or *for*; but sometimes by the Objective without a preposition.

d. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object of a verb (§ 177). It is used also with many of the Latin Prepositions.

e. The Vocative is the case of Direct Address.

f. The Ablative may usually be translated by the Objective with *from*, *by*, *with*, *in*, or *at*. It is also often used with prepositions.

g. All the cases, except the nominative and vocative, may be used as object-cases; and are sometimes called *Oblique Cases* (*cāsūs obliquī*).

NOTE.—A more convenient arrangement of the cases is the following (see n., p. 205):

DIRECT CASES: *Nominative, Vocative, Accusative.*

INDIRECT CASES: *Genitive, Dative, Ablative.*

h. In names of towns and a few other words appear traces of another case (the *Locative*), denoting the *place where*.

i. Still another case, the *Instrumental*, appears in a few adverbs (§ 148).

NOTE.—As the proper inflectional terminations early became fused with the stem in many cases, Latin words are inflected practically by adding *case-endings* to a part of the noun called the *base*, which is invariable (see § 21, note 2). But the base and case-endings do not exactly correspond to the proper stem and termination.

CHAPTER III.—Declension of Nouns.

32. NOUNS are inflected in five Declensions, distinguished by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular, and by the final letter (*characteristic*) of the Stem.¹

DECL.	1.	Gen. Sing.	ae	Characteristic	ā (anciently ā)
"	2.	"	I	"	ō
"	3.	"	Is	"	I or a Consonant
"	4.	"	ūs (uis)	"	ū
"	5.	"	si	"	s

a. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant-stem, by omitting the case-ending; if a vowel-stem, by substituting for the case-ending the characteristic vowel.

b. The Nominative of most masculine and feminine nouns (except in the first declension) is formed from the stem by adding a.²

NOTE.—But many, however, end in o, or in the liquids, l, n, r, — the original a (sometimes with one or more letters of the stem) having been lost by phonetic decay (§ 11). In some (as in *servus*, st. *servo*—) the stem-vowel is modified before the final s; or, as in *ager*, *imber*, st. *agro*-, *imbri*-, a vowel has intruded itself into the stem.

*33. The following are general Rules of Declension:—

a. The Vocative is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension.³

¹ Declension is produced by adding terminations originally significant to different forms of stems, vowel or consonant. The various phonetic corruptions in the language have given rise to the several declensions; but it is probable that originally there was only one, with perhaps a few variations. The original terminations (answering to prepositions) can no longer be determined with certainty, except in a few cases. Most of the case-endings, as given in Latin, contain also the final letter of the stem.

Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them. But they have several peculiarities of inflection, and will be more conveniently treated in a group by themselves (see Chap. IV.).

² The s of the nominative is the remnant of an old demonstrative *sa*, which is found (with modifications) in the Sanskrit *personal pronoun*, in the Greek *article*, and in the English *she*.

³ In the first and second declensions the vocative ends in the weakened stem-vowel. Most of the words likely to be used in address are of these declensions; and, in practice, comparatively few other words have a vocative. It is given in the paradigms for the sake of symmetry, but may well be omitted in declining.

b. In neuters the Nominative and Accusative are always alike, and in the plural end in *ä*.

c. The Accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in *m*; the Accusative plural in *s*.

d. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the Dative singular ends in *i*.

e. The Dative and Ablative plural are always alike.

f. The Genitive plural always ends in *um*.

g. Final *i*, *o*, *u* of inflection are always *long*; final *a* is *short*, except in the Ablative singular of the first declension; final *e* is *long* in the first and fifth declensions, *short* in the second and third.

34. The Case-endings of the several declensions are the following, rare forms being given in *parenthesis*, Greek forms in *italics* :—

DECL. I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.
<i>Sing.</i>				
N. <i>ä, äs, äs</i>	us, um, or, os, on, <i>eus s</i> (or modified stem)	us, <i>ü</i>	us, <i>ü</i>	us, <i>ü</i>
G. ae (<i>äi</i>) <i>äs</i>	I (<i>Ius</i>) <i>ö, ü, ei</i>	Is, <i>vos, ös</i>	üs (<i>uis</i>)	üs (<i>üis</i>)
D. ae (<i>ai</i>)	ö (<i>I</i>) <i>ei, eö</i>	I (<i>ü</i> , rare)	ui (<i>ü</i>)	ui (<i>ü</i>)
A. am, <i>än, en</i>	um, <i>on, ea</i>	em (<i>im</i>) <i>in, yn, ä</i>	um, <i>ü</i>	um, <i>ü</i>
V. <i>ä, ä, ä</i>	ö (<i>I</i>) <i>er, es</i>	(as nom.) <i>ü, y</i>	us, <i>ü</i>	us, <i>ü</i>
A. <i>ä, ä</i>	ö, <i>eö</i>	ö (<i>I</i>), <i>ä, yä</i>	ü	ü
<i>Plur.</i>				
N.V. ae	I, <i>ä</i>	ös, a, ia, <i>äs</i>	üs, <i>ua</i>	ös, <i>ä</i>
G. <i>ärum</i> (<i>üm</i>)	örum (<i>üm, öm</i>) <i>ön</i>	um, ium, <i>cön</i>	uum	örum
D.A. <i>is</i> (<i>ibus</i>)	is (<i>öbus</i>)	ibus	ibus (<i>ibus</i>)	ibus
A. <i>äs</i>	ös	ös (<i>is</i>), a, ia, <i>äs</i>	üs, <i>ua</i>	ös

FIRST DECLENSION.

35. The Stem of nouns of the First Declension ends in *ä*, and except in Greek nouns the nominative is like the stem.

Latin nouns of the First Declension are thus declined :—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
NOM.	stellä, a (or the) star.	stellae, stars.
GEN.	stellae, of a star.	stellärum, of stars.
DAT.	stellae, to (or for) a star.	stellis, to (or for) stars.
ACC.	stellam, a star.	stellas, stars.
VOC.	stellä, thou star!	stellae, ye stars!
ABL.	stellä, with, from, etc., a star.	stellis, with, from, etc., stars.

NOTE.—The *a*- of the stem was originally long.

GENDER.—Nouns of the first declension are Feminine.

EXCEPTIONS: Nouns masculine from their signification: as, *nauta*, sailor. So a few family or personal names: as, *Mūrēna*, *Soaevola*.¹ Also, *Hadria*, the Adriatic.

36. CASE-FORMS.—*a.* The Genitive singular anciently ended in *-ai*, which is occasionally found: as, *aulai*. The same ending occurs in the dative, but only as a diphthong.

b. An old genitive in *-ās* is preserved in the word *familiās*, used in the combinations *pater* (*māter*, *filius*, *filia*) *familiās*, father, etc., of a family (plur. *patrēs familiās* or *familiārum*).

c. The Locative form (§ 31. *h*) for the singular ends in *-ae*; for the plural in *-is*: as, *Rōmae*, at Rome; *Athēnis*, at Athens.

d. The Genitive plural is sometimes found in *-ūm* instead of *-ārum*, especially in compounds with *cōla* and *gēna*, signifying dwelling and descent: as, *caelicolūm*, celestials; *Trōiugēnūm*, sons of Troy; *Aeneadūm*, sons of Aeneas; so *amphora* and *drachma*.

e. The Dative and Ablative plural of *dea*, goddess, *filia*, daughter, end in an older form *-ābus*. So rarely with *liberta*, freed-woman; *mūla*, she-mule; *equa*, mare. But, except when the two sexes (as in formulas, documents, etc.) are mentioned together, the form in *-is* is preferred in all but *dea* and *filia*.

f. The original ending of the Ablative *-ā* is retained in early Latin: as, *praedād*, booty.

Greek Nouns.

37. Many nouns of the first declension borrowed from the Greek are entirely Latinized, but many retain traces of their Greek forms in various degrees.

	<i>a court</i> (F.).	<i>Electra</i> (F.).	<i>a synopsis</i> (F.).	<i>the art of music</i> (F.).
NOM.	<i>aula</i>	<i>Ēlectrā</i> (ā)	<i>epitomē</i>	<i>mūsica</i> (ē)
GEN.	<i>aulae</i>	<i>Ēlectrae</i>	<i>epitomēs</i>	<i>mūsicae</i> (ē)
DAT.	<i>aulae</i>	<i>Ēlectrae</i>	<i>epitomae</i>	<i>mūsicae</i>
ACC.	<i>aulam</i>	<i>Ēlectram</i> (ān)	<i>epitomēn</i>	<i>mūsicam</i> (ēn)
VOC.	<i>aula</i>	<i>Ēlectra</i>	<i>epitomē</i>	<i>mūsica</i> (ē)
ABL.	<i>aulā</i>	<i>Ēlectrā</i>	<i>epitomē</i>	<i>mūsicā</i> (ē)

¹ A feminine adjective, used as a noun, meaning *little left hand*, but from being a name of a man it becomes masculine. Original genders are often thus changed by the use of a noun in another sense.

Andromache (F.). *Aeneas* (M.). *Leonidas* (M.). *a Persian* (M.).

NOM.	Andromachē (a)	Aenēās	Leōnidās	Persēa (a)
GEN.	Andromachēs (ae)	Aenēae	Leōnidae	Persae
DAT.	Andromachae	Aenēae	Leōnidae	Persae
ACC.	Andromachēn (am)	Aenēān (am)	Leōnidam	Persēn (am)
VOC.	Andromachē (a)	Aenēā (ā)	Leōnidā (ā)	Persa
ABL.	Andromachē (ā)	Aenēā	Leōnidā	Persē (ā)

Anchises (M.). *son of Aeneas* (M.). *comet* (M.).

NOM.	Anchisēs	Aeneadēs (ā)	comētēs (a)
GEN.	Anchisae	Aeneadae	comētae
DAT.	Anchisae	Aeneadae	comētae
ACC.	Anchisēn (am)	Aeneadēn	comētēn (am)
VOC.	Anchisē (ā, ā)	Aeneadē (ā)	comētā
ABL.	Anchisē (ā)	Aeneadē (ā)	comētā (ē)

Also *Scipiadam*, from *Scipiadēs*, in *Horace*.

a. Many Greek nouns vary between the first, the second, and the third declensions: as, *Boōtae* (gen. of *Boōtēs*, -is), *Thūcydidās* (acc. plur. of *Thūcydidēs*, -is). See § 43. a and § 63.

b. Greek forms are found only in the singular; the plural is regular: as, *comētae*, -*arum*, etc. There are (besides proper names) about thirty-five of these words, several being names of plants, or names of arts: as, *crambē*, *cabbage*; *mūsicē*, *music*. Most have also regular Latin forms: as, *comēta*, but the nominative sometimes has the *a* long.

SECOND DECLENSION.

38. The Stem of nouns of the Second Declension ends in *ō*¹ (as of *vir*, *virō*-; *servos* (-us), *servō*-; *dominus*, *dominō*-). The nominative is formed from the stem by adding *s* in masculines and feminines, *m* in neuters, the vowel *ō* being weakened to *ū* (see §§ 7 and 10).

In most nouns whose stem ends in *rō*- the *s* is not added, but *o* is lost, and *e* intrudes before *r*, if not already present (cf. *chamber* from *chambre*): as, *ager*, stem *agrō*-, Greek *ἀγρός*. Exceptions are *hesperus*, *icterus*, *īūniperus*, *mōrus*, *numerus*, *taurus*, *umerus*, *uterus*, *vīrus*, and many Greek nouns.

¹ This is the original masculine *ā*-stem corresponding to the *ā*-stem of the first declension: but the *a* had already approached *o* before the separation of the languages (see Appendix).

Latin nouns of the Second Declension are thus declined:—

Sing.	<i>slave</i> (M.).	<i>boy</i> (M.).	<i>field</i> (M.).	<i>man</i> (M.).	<i>war</i> (N.). ¹
NOM.	<i>servus</i> (os)	<i>puer</i>	<i>ager</i>	<i>vir</i>	<i>bellum</i>
GEN.	<i>servī</i>	<i>puerī</i>	<i>agrī</i>	<i>virī</i>	<i>bellī</i>
DAT.	<i>servō</i>	<i>puerō</i>	<i>agrō</i>	<i>virō</i>	<i>bellō</i>
ACC.	<i>servum</i> (om)	<i>puerum</i>	<i>agrum</i>	<i>virum</i>	<i>bellum</i>
VOC.	<i>serve</i>	<i>puer</i>	<i>ager</i>	<i>vir</i>	<i>bellum</i>
ABL.	<i>servō</i>	<i>puerō</i>	<i>agrō</i>	<i>virō</i>	<i>bellō</i>
Plur.					
NOM.	<i>servī</i>	<i>puerī</i>	<i>agrī</i>	<i>virī</i>	<i>bella</i>
GEN.	<i>servōrum</i>	<i>puerōrum</i>	<i>agrōrum</i>	<i>virōrum</i>	<i>bellōrum</i>
DAT.	<i>servīs</i>	<i>puerīs</i>	<i>agrīs</i>	<i>virīs</i>	<i>bellīs</i>
ACC.	<i>servōs</i>	<i>puerōs</i>	<i>agrōs</i>	<i>virōs</i>	<i>bellā</i>
VOC.	<i>servī</i>	<i>puerī</i>	<i>agrī</i>	<i>virī</i>	<i>bella</i>
ABL.	<i>servīs</i>	<i>puerīs</i>	<i>agrīs</i>	<i>virīs</i>	<i>bellīs</i>

NOTE.—The earlier forms for nominative and accusative were *-os*, *-on*, and these were always retained after *u* and *v* up to the end of the Republic. The terminations *s* and *m* are sometimes omitted in inscriptions: as, *Cornēlio* for *Cornēlios*, *Cornēllom*.

39. GENDER.—Nouns ending in *us* (*os*), *er*, *ir*, are Masculine; those ending in *um* (*on*) are Neuter. But—

a. Names of towns in *us* (*os*) are Feminine: as, *Corinthus*. Also many names of plants and gems, with the following: *alvus*, *belly*; *carbassus*, *linen* (plural *carbassa*, *sails*, N.); *colus*, *distaff*; *humus*, *ground*; *vannus*, *winnowing-shovel*. Many Greek nouns retain their original gender: as, *arctus* (F.), *the Polar Bear*; *methodus* (F.), *method*.

b. The following in *us* are Neuter; their accusative, as of all neuters, is the same as the nominative: *pelagus* (nom. acc. plur. *pelagō*), *sea*; *virus*, *poison*; *vulgus* (rarely M.), *the crowd*; so *ostēa*, *sea-monsters* (nominative plural without nominative singular).

40. CASE-FORMS.—*a.* The Locative form of this declension ends for the singular in *i*: as, *humī*, *on the ground*; *Corinthī*, *at Corinth*; for the plural, in *is*: as, *Philippīs*, *at Philippi*.

b. The genitive of nouns in *ius* or *ium* ended, until the Augustan Age, in a single *i*: as, *filii*, *of a son*; but the accent of the nominative is retained: as, *ingēni*, *of genius*.¹ The same contraction occurs in the genitive singular and the dative and ablative plural of nouns in *-iūs* and *-iūs*: as, *Grāis*, *for the Greeks*; *Pompēi*, *of Pompey*.

¹ The genitive in *ii* occurs twice in Virgil, and constantly in Ovid, but was unknown to Cicero. The first *i* was probably retained in sound as *y*.

c. Proper names in *-ius* lose *e* in the vocative, retaining the accent of the nominative: as, *Vergīlī*; also, *fīlius*, *son*; *genius*, *divine guardian*: as, *audī*, *mī fīlī*, *hear, my son*.

d. Greek names in *-ius* have the vocative *īe*. Adjectives in *-ius* form the vocative in *-īe*, and some of these are occasionally used as nouns: as, *Lacedaemonīe*, *oh Spartan*.

e. The genitive plural often has *ūm* or (after *v*) *ōm* (cf. § 7) for *orum*; especially in the poets: as, *deūm*, *superūm*, *dīvōm*, *of the Gods*, *virūm*, *of men*. Also in compounds of *vir*, and in many words of money, measure, and weight: as, *sēvirūm*, *of the Seviri*, *nummūm*, *of coins*, *iugerūm*, *of acres*.

f. *Deus*, *god*, has vocative *deus*; plural: nominative and vocative *deī* (for *dīī*); genitive *deōrum*, *deūm*; dative and ablative *deīs* or *dīs* (for *dīīs*). For the genitive plur. *dīvūm* or *dīvōm* (from *dīvus*, *ne*) is often used.

g. The original ending of the ablative *-d* is found in early Latin: as, *Gnaivōd* (later, *Gnaeō*), *Cneius*.

41. The following stems in *ero-*, in which *e* belongs to the stem, retain the *e* throughout:—

adulter, *adulterer*; *gener*, *son-in-law*; *puer*, *boy*;
socer, *father-in-law*; *vesper*, *evening*.

Also, compounds in *fer* and *ger* (stem *fero-*, *gero-*): as, *lūcifer*, *morning star*; *armiger*, *squire*.

a. Some of these have an old nominative in *-erus*: as, *socerus*. So vocative *puere*, *a boy*, as from *puerus* (regularly *puer*).

b. *Vir*, *man*, has the genitive *virī*; the adjective *satur*, *sated*, has *saturī*; *vesper*, *evening*, has abl. *vespere* (loc. *vesperī*, *in the evening*).

c. *Liber* (a name of Bacchus) has genitive *Liberī*; so, too, the adjective *liber*, *free*, of which *liberī*, *children*, is the plural (§ 82. b).

d. *Ibēr* and *Celtibēr*, barbaric names not properly belonging to this declension, retain *ē* throughout.

e. *Mulciber*, *Vulcan*, has *-berī* and *-brī* in the genitive.

42. The following not having *e* in the stem insert it in the nominative and vocative singular. (Cf. § 10. d.)

<i>ager</i> , <i>field</i> , <i>st. agro</i> ;	<i>coluber</i> , <i>snake</i> ;	<i>magister</i> , <i>master</i> ;
<i>aper</i> , <i>boar</i> ;	<i>conger</i> , <i>sea-eel</i> ;	<i>minister</i> , <i>servant</i> ;
<i>arbitr</i> , <i>judge</i> ;	<i>cultēr</i> , <i>knife</i> ;	<i>oleaster</i> , <i>wild-olive</i> ;
<i>austr</i> , <i>south wind</i> ;	<i>fabr</i> , <i>smith</i> ;	<i>onager</i> (<i>-grus</i>), <i>wild-ass</i> ;
<i>cancer</i> , <i>crab</i> ;	<i>fibēr</i> , <i>beaver</i> ;	<i>scomber</i> (<i>-brus</i>), <i>mackerel</i> .
<i>capr</i> , <i>goat</i> ;	<i>libr</i> , <i>book</i> ;	

[N.B.—For the corresponding forms of Adjectives, see Chap. IV.]

43. Greek nouns—including many names in -eus—are declined as follows in the Singular, the Plural being regular:—

	<i>fable (M.).</i>	<i>mock-sun (N.).</i>	<i>Delos (F.).</i>	<i>Athos (M.).</i>	<i>Orpheus (M.).</i>
NOM.	mýthos	parēlion	Dēlos	Athōs (ō)	Orpheus
GEN.	mýthi	parēlii	Dēli	Athō (i)	Orphē (eos)
DAT.	mýthō	parēliō	Dēlō	Athō	Orphēi
ACC.	mýthon	parēlion	Dēlon (um)	Athōn (um)	Orpheā
VOC.	mýthe	parēlion	Dēle	Athōs	Orpheu
ABL.	mýthō	parēliō	Dēlō	Athō	Orphēō

a. Many names in -ēs belonging to the third declension have also a genitive in -i: as, Thūcydidēs, Thūcydidī (compare §§ 37. a and 63).

b. Several names in -er have also a nominative in -us: as, Teuocēr or Teuocūs. The name Panthūs has the vocative Panthū (§ 63. i).

c. The genitive plural of certain titles of books takes the Greek termination -ōn: as, Geōrgiōōn, *of the Georgics*.

d. The termination -oe (for Greek -oi) is sometimes found in the nominative plural: as, Adelphoe, *the Adelphi* (a play of Terence).

THIRD DECLENSION.

Nouns of the Third Declension are best classed according to their stems, as ending (1) in a Vowel (i), (2) in a Liquid (l, n, r), (3) in a Mute.

A few whose stems end in u, formerly long (grūs, sūs), were treated as consonant-stems.

1. Mute-Stems.

44. Masculine and Feminine nouns, whose stem ends in a Mute, form the nominative by adding -s. If the mute is a lingual (t, d), it is suppressed before -s; if it is a palatal (c, g), it unites with -s, forming -x: as, —

op-is, ops, *help*; custōd-is, custōs, *guardian*; rēg-is, rēx, *king*.¹

Neuters have for the nominative the simple stem (with some modifications, see § 45).

capit-is, caput, *head*; poēmat-is, poēma, *poem*.

¹ In these the genitive is given first to show the stem as it occurs in practice.

45. The vowel before the final consonant of the stem is often modified:—

a. LABIALS.—Stems in *-ip-* have *e* before *p* in the nominative: ¹ as, *adip-is*, *adeps*. Most stems in *-cip-* are compounds of the root *CAP* (in *capit*, *take*): as, *particip-is*, *particeps*, *sharer*. In these the stem sometimes has the form *cup-*: as, *aucep-is*, *auceps*, *fowler*.

b. LINGUALS.—Stems in *-it-* (M. or F.) have *e* (short) in the nominative: as, *hospit-is*, *hospes*. The neuter *capit-is* has *caput*. Neuter stems ending in two consonants, and those ending in *-it-* (Greek nouns), drop the final lingual: as, *cord-is*, *cor*; *poëmat-is*, *poëma*.

c. PALATALS.—Stems in *-io-* (short *i*) have the nominative in *-ex*, with a few exceptions (§ 67. e), and are chiefly masculine: as, *apio-is*, *indio-is*, *index*. Those in *-io-* (long *i*) retain *i*, and are feminine: as, *cornio-is*, *cornix*.²

46. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:

Sing.	<i>help</i> (F.)	<i>king</i> (M.)	<i>guide</i> (C.). ³	<i>soldier</i> (M.).	<i>head</i> (N.).
	Stem <i>op-</i>	<i>rēg-</i>	<i>duc-</i>	<i>milit-</i>	<i>capit-</i>
NOM.	[<i>ops</i>] ⁴	<i>rēx</i>	<i>dux</i>	<i>miles</i>	<i>caput</i>
GEN.	<i>opis</i>	<i>rēgis</i>	<i>ducis</i>	<i>militis</i>	<i>capitis</i>
DAT.	<i>opi</i>	<i>rēgi</i>	<i>duci</i>	<i>militi</i>	<i>capiti</i>
ACC.	<i>opem</i>	<i>rēgem</i>	<i>ducem</i>	<i>militem</i>	<i>caput</i>
VOC.	<i>ops</i>	<i>rēx</i>	<i>dux</i>	<i>miles</i>	<i>caput</i>
ABL.	<i>ope</i>	<i>rēge</i>	<i>duce</i>	<i>militē</i>	<i>capite</i>
Plur.	<i>wealth</i>				
NOM.	<i>opēs</i>	<i>rēgēs</i>	<i>ducēs</i>	<i>militēs</i>	<i>capita</i>
GEN.	<i>opum</i>	<i>rēgum</i>	<i>ducum</i>	<i>militum</i>	<i>capitum</i>
DAT.	<i>opibus</i>	<i>rēgibus</i>	<i>ducibus</i>	<i>militibus</i>	<i>capitibus</i>
ACC.	<i>opēs</i>	<i>rēgēs</i>	<i>ducēs</i>	<i>militēs</i>	<i>capita</i>
VOC.	<i>opēs</i>	<i>rēgēs</i>	<i>ducēs</i>	<i>militēs</i>	<i>capita</i>
ABL.	<i>opibus</i>	<i>rēgibus</i>	<i>ducibus</i>	<i>militibus</i>	<i>capitibus</i>

¹ In these cases *e* is a less weakened form of the root (§ 10. a). A few whose root-vowel is *i* follow the analogy of the others: as, *indio-is*, *index*.

² In *nix*, *nivis*, the nominative retains a palatal lost in the other cases (original stem *niŋ-*, compare § 15. and *ningit*, § 146. a). *Supellex* (-*ectilis*) is partly a lingual, partly an *i*-stem. Of apparent *e*-stems in Latin, *as* (*asalis*) is an *i*-stem; and the original stem of *os* (*ossis*) is *ost-* (cf. *ὄσσιον* and Sanskrit *asthi*). Original *e*-stems have either (1) passed into *r*-stems (changed from *e* (§ 11. a. 1)) in most of the cases, as *honor*, -*ōris*, *corpus*, -*ōris* (see *liquid stems*); or (2) have broken down into *i*-stems, as *mōles* (cf. *molestus*), *nūbēs* (Sanskrit *nabhas*), *edēs* (cf. *ēdes*), *vīs* (plur. *vīrēs*), etc., but *vīs* keeps its proper form in the nominative.

³ Common gender, see § 30.

⁴ The singular (meaning *help*) is not used in the nominative, except as the name of a divinity. The dative singular occurs but once.

47. In like manner are declined —

princeps, -ipis (C.), <i>chief</i> ;	arīēs, -etis (M.), <i>ram</i> ;
lapis, -idis (M.), <i>stone</i> ;	iūdex, -icis (M.), <i>judge</i> ;
custōs, -ōdis (C.), <i>guard</i> ;	cornix, -icis (F.), <i>raven</i> ;
comes, -itis (C.), <i>companion</i> ;	poēma, -atis (N.), <i>poem</i> (§ 47. 6).

a. Many apparent mute-stems,¹ having the genitive plural in -um, are to be classed with i-stems (§ 54).

b. Greek neuters (as poēma), with nominative singular in -a, frequently end in the dative and ablative plural in -is, and in the genitive plural rarely in -orum.

c. A few nouns apparent i-stems belong here: canis, or canēs, gen. canis (stem orig. can-), *dog*.

2. Liquid-Stems.

48. In nouns whose stem ends in a Liquid (l, n, r), the nominative is the same as the stem, except when modified as follows:—

a. Stems in ōn- (M. and F.) drop n in the nominative: as in leōn-is, *lion*; legiōn-is, *legion*.

b. Stems in dīn- or gīn- (mostly feminine) drop n and keep an original ō in the nominative: as, virgīn-is, *maiden*. Also a few others:² as, homīn-is, *man*; turbīn-is, *whirlpool*; Apollīn-is, *Apollō*; carn-is, *flesh* (see § 61); Aniōn-is, *Aniō*. Most other stems in īn- have e and retain n: as, corniciōn-is, *cornicen* (M.), *horn-blower*; carmin-is, *carmen* (N.), *song*.³

c. Stems in tr- have -ter in the nominative: as, patr-is, *pater*, *father*; mātr-is, *māter*, *mother*.⁴

d. Many neuter stems in er- and or- (originally s-stems) have -us in the nominative: as, oper-is, *opus*, *work*; corpor-is, *corpus*, *body*. Some stems in er- have -is: as, ciner-is, *cinis*, *ashes*.

A few masculine and feminine stems have the nominative in -s as well as -r: as, honor-is, *honor* (or honor); arbor-is, *arbor* (or arbor), *tree*.⁵

NOTE. — For some irregular nominatives of this kind, see § 50.

¹ That is, as would appear from the nominative.

² All these had originally ō in the stem.

³ These differences are inherited from the parent speech, and depend upon different modifications of the same original vowel (§ 10).

⁴ These, no doubt, had originally ter- in the stem, but this has become weakened to tr- in some of the cases even in the parent speech. In Latin only the nom. and voc. sing. show the e. But cf. Mārspiteris and Mārspiteris (Mā(r)s-piter).

⁵ See Note a, page 26.

e. Stems in *ll-, rr-* (N.) lose one of their liquids in the nominative: *as, farr-is, far, grain; fell-is, fel, gall.*

49. Nouns of this class are declined as follows:—

Sing.	<i>consul</i> (M.). <i>Stem cōsul-</i>	<i>lion</i> (M.). <i>leōn-</i>	<i>maiden</i> (F.). <i>virgin-</i>	<i>name</i> (N.). <i>nōmin-</i>
NOM.	cōsul	leō	virgō	nōmen
GEN.	cōsul ^{is}	leōn ^{is}	virgin ^{is}	nōmin ^{is}
DAT.	cōsul ⁱ	leōn ⁱ	virgin ⁱ	nōmin ⁱ
ACC.	cōsul ^{em}	leōn ^{em}	virgin ^{em}	nōmen
VOC.	cōsul	leō	virgō	nōmen
ABL.	cōsul ^e	leōn ^e	virgin ^e	nōmin ^e
Plur.				
NOM.	cōsul ^{ēs}	leōn ^{ēs}	virgin ^{ēs}	nōmin ^a
GEN.	cōsul ^{um}	leōn ^{um}	virgin ^{um}	nōmin ^{um}
DAT.	cōsul ^{ibus}	leōn ^{ibus}	virgin ^{ibus}	nōmin ^{ibus}
ACC.	cōsul ^{ēs}	leōn ^{ēs}	virgin ^{ēs}	nōmin ^a
VOC.	cōsul ^{ēs}	leōn ^{ēs}	virgin ^{ēs}	nōmin ^a
ABL.	cōsul ^{ibus}	leōn ^{ibus}	virgin ^{ibus}	nōmin ^{ibus}
Sing.	<i>body</i> (N.). <i>St. corpor-, orig. corpora-</i>	<i>race</i> (N.). <i>gener- orig. gene^{ra}-</i>	<i>ivory</i> (N.). <i>ebor^a-</i>	<i>plain</i> (N.). <i>aequor-</i>
NOM.	corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
GEN.	corpor ^{is}	gener ^{is}	ebor ^{is}	aequor ^{is}
DAT.	corpor ⁱ	gener ⁱ	ebor ⁱ	aequor ⁱ
ACC.	corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
VOC.	corpus	genus	ebur	aequor
ABL.	corpore	genere	ebore	aequore
Plur.				
NOM.	corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
GEN.	corpor ^{um}	gener ^{um}	ebor ^{um}	aequor ^{um}
DAT.	corpor ^{ibus}	gener ^{ibus}	ebor ^{ibus}	aequor ^{ibus}
ACC.	corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
VOC.	corpora	genera	ebora	aequora
ABL.	corpor ^{ibus}	gener ^{ibus}	ebor ^{ibus}	aequor ^{ibus}

50. In like manner are declined—

<i>pater, patris</i> (M.), <i>father</i> ;	<i>arbor</i> (- <i>ēs</i>), - <i>oris</i> (F.), <i>tree</i> .
<i>furfur, -uris</i> (M.), <i>bran</i> ;	<i>honor</i> (- <i>ēs</i>), - <i>oris</i> (M.), <i>honor</i> .
<i>opus, -is</i> (N.), <i>work</i> ;	<i>pignus, -is</i> or - <i>oris</i> , <i>pledge</i> .

¹ A foreign word forced into the analogy of the *r-* (-*s*) stems.

The following apparently liquid stems have the genitive plural in *-ium*, and are to be classed with the *i*-stems: *imber*, *linter*, *ŭter*, *venter*; *fŭr*, *glis*, *lār*, *mās*, *mŭs*, [*trĕn*]; also *vīrēs* (pl. from *vīs*: see § 61).

3. Vowel-Stems.

51. Vowel-stems of the Third Declension end in *i* (as *turris*, stem *turri*; *mare*, stem *mari*). The nominative, except in neuters, is formed by adding *-s* to the stem.

a. Thirty-five nouns change *i* to *ĕ* in the nominative,¹ and many others vary between *i* and *ĕ*: *ns*, *cīvĕs* or *cīvis*, *citizen*; *canĕs* or *canis*.

b. The nominative of a few stems in *brī*- and *trī*- does not add *-s*, but loses *i*, inserting *e* before *r*. These are *imber*, *linter*, *ŭter*, *venter* (§ 54, and cf. *ager*).

c. The nominative of neuters is the same as the stem, with the change of *i* to *ĕ* (as in *mare*). But when *i* was preceded by *al* or *ar*, the *e* was lost, as in *animal* (§ 53. *c*).²

52. Nouns of this class are declined as follows :-

Sing.	<i>thirst</i> (F.).	<i>tower</i> (F.).	<i>cloud</i> (F.).	<i>seat</i> (N.).	<i>animal</i> (N.).
	STEM <i>siti-</i>	<i>turri-</i>	<i>nubi-</i>	<i>sedili-</i>	<i>animāli-</i>
NOM.	<i>sitis</i>	<i>turris</i>	<i>nŭbĕs</i>	<i>sedile</i>	<i>animal</i>
GEN.	<i>sitis</i>	<i>turris</i>	<i>nŭbis</i>	<i>sedilis</i>	<i>animālis</i>
DAT.	<i>sitī</i>	<i>turri</i>	<i>nŭbī</i>	<i>sedilī</i>	<i>animālī</i>
ACC.	<i>sitim</i>	<i>turrem</i> (im)	<i>nŭbem</i>	<i>sedile</i>	<i>animal</i>
VOC.	<i>sitis</i>	<i>turris</i>	<i>nŭbĕs</i>	<i>sedile</i>	<i>animal</i>
ABL.	<i>sitī</i>	<i>turre</i> (I)	<i>nŭbe</i>	<i>sedilī</i>	<i>animālī</i>
Plur.					
NOM.		<i>turrĕs</i>	<i>nŭbĕs</i>	<i>sedilia</i>	<i>animālia</i>
GEN.		<i>turrium</i>	<i>nŭbium</i>	<i>sedilium</i>	<i>animālium</i>
DAT.		<i>turribus</i>	<i>nŭbibus</i>	<i>sedilibus</i>	<i>animālibus</i>
ACC.		<i>turris</i> (ĕs)	<i>nŭbis</i> (ĕs)	<i>sedilia</i>	<i>animālia</i>
VOC.		<i>turrĕs</i>	<i>nŭbĕs</i>	<i>sedilia</i>	<i>animālia</i>
ABL.		<i>turribus</i>	<i>nŭbibus</i>	<i>sedilibus</i>	<i>animālibus</i>

¹ These are *acīnacĕs*, *aedĕs*, *alcĕs*, *caedĕs*, *cautĕs*, *clādĕs*, *compāgĕs*, *contāgĕs*, *famĕs*, *fĕlĕs*, *fĭdĕs* (pl.), *indolĕs*, *lĕbĕs*, *luĕs*, *mĕlĕs*, *mŏlĕs*, *nŭbĕs*, *palumbĕs*, *prŏlĕs*, *prŏpāgĕs*, *pŭbĕs*, *sĕdĕs*, *saepĕs*, *sordĕs*, *strāgĕs*, *struĕs*, *subolĕs*, *tābĕs*, *torquĕs*, *tudĕs*, *vātĕs*, *vĕhĕs*, *veprĕs*, *verrĕs*, *vulpĕs* (*aedĕs* has also nom. *aedis*).

² Except in *augurāle*, *collāre*, *fŏcile*, *mare*, *nāvāle*, *penetrāle*, *scūtāle*, *tibiale*; *alveāre*, *capillāre*, *cochleāre*.

53. Nouns of this class include:—

a. Nouns of the third declension in *-ēs* or *-is* (mostly feminine) or *-e* (neuter) having the same number of syllables in the nominative and genitive (*parisyllabic*).

b. Those in *-er*, except *pater*, *māter*, *frāter*, *accipiter*.

c. Neuters in *-al*, *-ar* (originally neuters of adjectives in *-ālis*, *-āris*) which have lost a final *-e*.¹

54. Many nouns with apparently consonant-stems were originally i-stems.² These are—

1. Monosyllables with stem apparently ending in two consonants: *as*, *urbs*, *mōns* (gen. *montis*), *nox* (gen. *noctis*), *arx*; together with *imber*, *linter*, *līter*, *venter* (§ 51. *b*).

2. Stems in *tāt-* (as *cīvitās*, *-ātis*),³ or in *d* or *t* preceded by a consonant (including participles used as nouns); also the monosyllables *dōs*, [*†faux*], *fūr*, *glīs*, *līs*, *mās*, *mūs*, *nix*, [*†rēn*], *strix*, *vīs*, *scrobs* (cf. § 50).

3. Nouns denoting birth or abode, having stems in *āt-*, *īt-*, originally adjectives: *as*, *Arpīnās*, *-ātis* (§ 164. *c*.), with *penātēs* and *optimātēs* (§ 76. 2).

They are thus declined:—

Sing. <i>city</i> (F.).	<i>night</i> (F.).	<i>age</i> (F.).	<i>mouse</i> (M.).	<i>shower</i> (M.).
STEM <i>urbī-</i>	<i>noctī-</i>	<i>aetātī-</i>	<i>mūrī-</i>	<i>imbri-</i>
NOM. <i>urbs</i>	<i>nox</i>	<i>aetās</i>	<i>mūs</i>	<i>imber</i>
GEN. <i>urbis</i>	<i>noctis</i>	<i>aetātis</i>	<i>mūris</i>	<i>imbris</i>
DAT. <i>urbī</i>	<i>noctī</i>	<i>aetātī</i>	<i>mūrī</i>	<i>imbri</i>
ACC. <i>urbem</i>	<i>noctem</i>	<i>aetātem</i>	<i>mūrem</i>	<i>imbrem</i>
VOC. <i>urbs</i>	<i>nox</i>	<i>aetās</i>	<i>mūs</i>	<i>imber</i>
ABL. <i>urbe</i>	<i>nocte</i>	<i>aetāte</i>	<i>mūre</i>	<i>imbre</i> (I)

¹ These are animal, bacchānal, bidental, capital, cervical, cubital, hypercal, minūtal, puteal, quadrantal, toral, tribūnal, vectigal; calcar, cochlear, exemplar, lacunar, laquear, lūcar, lūminar, lupānar, palcar, pulvinar, torcular; with the plurals *dentālia*, *frontālia*, *genuālia*, *rēmālia*, *spōnālia*; *altāria*, *plantāria*, *speculāria*, *tālāria*; also many names of festivals as *Sāturnālia*.

² The *i*-declension was confused even to the Romans themselves, nor was it stable at all periods of the language, early Latin having *i*-forms which afterwards disappeared. There was a tendency in nouns to lose the *i*-forms, in adjectives to gain them. The nominative plural (*-is*) was most thoroughly lost, next the accusative form (*-im*), next the ablative (*-ī*); while the genitive and accusative plural (*-ium*, *-ā*) were retained in almost all.

³ These, however, more commonly have the genitive plural in *-um*.

Plur.

NOM. urbēs	noctēs	aetātēs	mūrēs	imbrēs
GEN. urbium	noctium	aetātum (ium)	mūrium	imbrum
DAT. urbibus	noctibus	aetātibus	mūribus	imbribus
ACC. urbēs (ēs)	noctēs (ēs)	aetātēs (ēs)	mūrēs (ēs)	imbrēs (ēs)
VOC. urbēs	noctēs	aetātēs	mūrēs	imbrēs
ABL. urbibus	noctibus	aetātibus	mūribus	imbribus

NOTE.—The declension of these nouns in the singular differs in no respect from that of consonant-stems, and in the plural in no respect from that of vowel-stems.

55. Vowel-stems show the *i* of the stem in the following forms:—

- They all have the genitive plural in *-ium* (but some monosyllables lack it entirely). For a few exceptions, see § 59.
- All neuters have the nominative and accusative plural in *-ia*.
- The accusative plural (M. or F.) is regularly *-is*.
- The accusative singular (M. or F.) of a few ends in *-im* (§ 56).
- The ablative singular of all neuters, and of many masculines and feminines, ends in *-i* (see § 57).

56. The regular case-ending of the accusative singular of *i*-stems (M. or F.) would be *-im*: as, *sitis*, *sitim* (cf. *stella*, *-am*; *servos*, *-om*); but in most nouns this is changed to *-em* (following the consonant declension).

a. The accusative in *-im* is found exclusively—

- In Greek nouns and names of rivers.
- In *būris*, *cucumis*, *rāvis*, *sitis*, *tussis*, *vīs*.
- In adverbs in *-tim* (being accusative of nouns in *-tis*), as *partim*; and in *amussim*.

b. The accusative in *-im* is found sometimes in *febris*, *puppis*, *restis*, *turris*, *secūris*, *sēmentis*, and rarely in many other words.

57. The regular form of the ablative singular of *i*-stems would be *-i*: as, *sitis*, *siti*; but in most nouns this is changed to *-e*.

a. The ablative in *-i* is found exclusively—

- In nouns having the accusative in *-im* (§ 56); also *secūris*.
- In the following adjectives used as nouns: *aquālis*, *annalis*, *aquālis*, *cōsularis*, *gentilis*, *molaris*, *principiālis*, *tribūlis*.

3. In neuters (whose nominative ends in *-e*, *-al*, *-ar*): except *baeoc*, *tabar*, and sometimes (in verses) *maris*, *rēte*.

b. The ablative in *-a* is found sometimes —

1. In *avis*, *olāvis*, *febris*, *finis*, *ignis*,¹ *imber*, *nāvis*, *ovis*, *pelvis*, *puppis*, *sēmentis*, *strigilis*, *turris*.
2. In the following adjectives used as nouns: *affinis*, *bipennis*, *canālis*, *familiāris*, *nātālis*, *rīvālis*, *sapiēns*, *tridēns*, *trirēmis*, *vōcālis*.

c. The ablative of *famēs* is always *famē* (§ 78. 1. *e*). The defective *mane* has sometimes locative *māni* (§ 77. 2. *e*) used as ablative.

d. Most names of towns in *-e*, — as *Praeneste*, *Tergeste*, — and *Sōraote*, a mountain, have the ablative in *-e*. *Caere* has *Caerēte*.

e. For *canis*. see § 47. *c*.

58. The regular Nominative plural of *i*-stems would be *-is*, but this is very rarely found in nouns. The regular Accusative *-is* is common, but not exclusively used in any word. An old form for both cases is *-eis* (diphthong).

59. The following have *-um* (not *-ium*) in the Genitive plural: *canis*, *iuvēnis* (originally consonant-stems); *ambāgēs*, *mare* (once only, otherwise wanting), *volucris*; also (sometimes) *apis*, *caedēs*, *olādēs*, *mōnsis*, *sēdēs*, *struēs*, *subolēs*, *vātēs*, and (very rarely) *patriālis* in *-ās*, *-ātis*; *-is*, *-itis*; as, *Arpīnās*, *Arpīnātum*; *Samnīs*, *Samnitum*.

4. Irregular Nouns.

60. In many nouns the stem is irregularly modified in the nominative or other cases. Thus —

a. The vowel-stems *grū-*, *sū-*, add *-s* in the nominative, and are flexed like mute-stems: *grūs* has also a nominative *gruis*; *sūs* both *suibus* and *subus* in the dative and ablative plural.

b. In the stem *bov-* (*bou-*) the diphthong *ou* becomes *ō* in the nominative (*bōs*, *bōvis*). In *nāv-* (*nau-*) an *i* is added (*nāvis*, *-is*). In *īōv-* (= *Zeūs*) the diphthong (*ou*) becomes *ū* in *īū-piter* (for *-pāter*), gen. *īōvis*, etc.

c. In *iter*, *itineris* (N.), *tecur*, *tecinoris* (N.), *supellex*, *supelleotilis* (F.), the nominative has been formed from a shorter stem, in *senex*, *senis* from a longer; so that these words show a combination of two distinct forms. The shorter form is found in the genitive *tecor-is*.

d. Of the many original *a*-stems, only *vās*, *vāsis* (N.) (pl. *vāsa*, *-ōrum*) (see p. 26, foot-note 2), retains its proper form in the nominative (see § 48. *d*).

¹ Always in the formula *aquil et igni interdicti* (§ 243. *a*).

61. Some peculiar forms are thus declined :—

Sing.	ox, cow (C.).	old man (M.).	flesh (F.).	bone (N.).	force (F.).	swine (C.).
N., V.	bōs	senex	carō	os	vis	ās
GEN.	bōvis	senis	carnis	ossis	vis (rare)	suī
DAT.	bovī	senī	carnī	ossī	vī (rare)	suī
ACC.	bovem	senem	carnem	os	vim	suem
ABL.	bove	sene	carne	osse	vī	sue
Plur.	cattle				strength	
N., A., V.	bovēs	senēs	carnēs	ossa	virēs	suēs
GEN.	bovum	senum	carnium	ossium	virium	suum
D., ABL.	bōbus	senibus	carnibus	ossibus	viribus	suibus
	(būbus)					(suibus)

5. Case Forms

62. The LOCATIVE form for nouns of the third declension ends in the singular in *-ī* or *-e*: as, *rūrī*, in the country; *Carthāginī* or *Carthāgine*, at Carthage; in the plural in *-ibus*: as, *Trallibus*, at Tralles.

NOTE.—The Locative singular in *-e* appears to have been first used in poetry.

a. An old ablative is found ending in *-d*: as, *conventiōnid*, *diotātōred* (cf. *praedād*, § 36. *f.*; *Gnaivōd*, § 40. *g.*; *magistrātūd*, § 70. *h.*).

6. Greek Forms.

63. Many nouns originally Greek—mostly proper names—retain Greek forms of inflection.

a. Stems in *in-* (*i* long) *delphīnus*, *-ī* (M.), has also the form *delphīn*, *-inis*; *Salamis*, *-is* (F.), has acc. *Salamīna*.

b. Most stems in *Id-* (nom. *-is*) often have also the forms of *i*-stems: as, *tigris*, *-idis* (*-idos*) or *-is*; acc. *-idem* (*-ida*) or *-im* (*-in*); abl. *-ide* or *-I*. But many, including most feminine proper names, have acc. *-idem* (*-ida*), abl. *-ide*,—not *-im* or *-I*. (These stems are irregular also in Greek.)

c. Stems in *on-* sometimes retain *-n* in the nominative: as, *Agamēm-nōn* (or *Agamemnō*), *-ōnis*, accusative *-ōna*.

d. Stems in *ont-* form the nom. in *-ōn*: as, *horizōn*, *Xenophōn*; but a few are occasionally Latinized into *ōn-* (nom. *-ō*): as, *Dracon*, *-ōnis*.

e. Stems in *ant-*, *ent-*, have the nom. in *-ās*, *-is*: as *adamās*, *-antis*; *Simois*, *-entis*. So a few in *int-* (contracted from *o-ent-*) have *-ās*: as, *Trapezās*, *-antis*. Occasionally the Latin form of nominative is also found: as, *Atlāna*, *elephāns*, as well as *Atlās*, *elephās*.

f. Many Greek nouns (especially in the poets) have gen. -ōs, acc. -ā; plur. nom. -ēs, acc. -ās: as, *āēr*, *aethēr*, *orātēr*, *hērōs* (-ōis), *lampas* (-ādis or -ādos), *lynx* (-cis or -cōs), *nāis* (-idos), *Orpheus* (-eos: see § 43).

g. A few in -ys have acc. -yn, voc. -y, abl. -yō: as, *chelys*, -yn, -y; *Carys*, -yos, -yī, -yn, -y, -yō.

h. Several feminine names in -ō have gen. sing. -ūs, all the other cases ending in -ō; they may also have regular forms: as, *Didō*, gen. *Didōnis* or *Didūs*; dat. *Didōni* or *Didō*, etc.

i. Several Greek forms are irregularly retained in the vocative: as, *Panthūs*, voc. *Panthū*; *Orpheus*, *Orpheu*; *Atlās*, *Atlā*; *Daphnis*, *Daphni*; *Periclēs*, *Periclē* (cf. § 43).

64. Some of these forms are seen in the following examples:—

Sing.	<i>hero</i> (N.).	<i>torch</i> (F.).	<i>base</i> (F.).	<i>tiger</i> (C.).	<i>naiad</i> (F.).	<i>lyre</i> (F.).
	STEM <i>hērō-</i>	<i>lampad-</i>	<i>bas-</i>	<i>tigrīd-</i> (<i>tigrī-</i>)	<i>naid-</i>	<i>chely-</i>
N., V.	<i>hērōs</i>	<i>lampas</i>	<i>basis</i>	<i>tigris</i>	<i>nāis</i>	<i>chelys</i>
GEN.	<i>hērōis</i>	<i>lampados</i>	<i>baseōs</i>	<i>tigris</i> (<i>idos</i>)	<i>nāidos</i>	—
DAT.	<i>hērōi</i>	<i>lampadī</i>	<i>basī</i>	<i>tigrī</i>	<i>nāidī</i>	—
ACC.	<i>hērōa</i>	<i>lampada</i>	<i>basin</i>	<i>tigrin</i> (<i>ida</i>)	<i>nāida</i>	<i>chelyn</i>
ABL.	<i>hērōe</i>	<i>lampade</i>	<i>basī</i>	<i>tigrī</i> (<i>ide</i>)	<i>nāide</i> (<i>V. chely</i>)	
Plur.						
N., V.	<i>hērōēs</i>	<i>lampadēs</i>	<i>basēs</i>	<i>tigrēs</i>	<i>nāidēs</i>	
GEN.	<i>hērōum</i>	<i>lampadum</i>	<i>bastum</i> (<i>eōn</i>)	<i>tigrīum</i>	<i>nāidum</i>	
D., A. ¹	<i>hērōibus</i>	<i>lampadibus</i>	<i>basibus</i>	<i>tigrībus</i>	<i>nāidibus</i>	
ACC.	<i>hērōās</i>	<i>lampadās</i>	<i>basīs</i> (<i>ōis</i>)	<i>tigrīs</i> (<i>idās</i>)	<i>nāidās</i>	

PROPER NAMES.

NOM.	<i>Atlās</i>	<i>Didō</i>	<i>Simois</i>	<i>Carys</i>	<i>Daphnis</i>
GEN.	<i>Atlantis</i>	<i>Didōnis</i> (<i>ūs</i>)	<i>Simoentis</i>	<i>Caryos</i>	<i>Daphnoidis</i>
DAT.	<i>Atlantī</i>	<i>Didōnī</i> (<i>ō</i>)	<i>Simoentī</i>	<i>Caryī</i>	<i>Daphnoidī</i>
ACC.	<i>Atlanta</i>	<i>Didōnem</i> (<i>ō</i>)	<i>Simoenta</i>	<i>Caryn</i>	<i>Daphnim</i> (<i>in</i>)
Voc.	<i>Atlās</i> (<i>ī</i>)	<i>Didō</i>	<i>Simois</i>	<i>Cary</i>	<i>Daphni</i>
ABL.	<i>Atlante</i>	<i>Didōne</i> (<i>ō</i>)	<i>Simoente</i>	<i>Carye</i>	<i>Daphni</i>

NOTE.—The regular Latin forms can be used for most of the above.

7. Rules of Gender.

65. The following are general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed according to the termination of the nominative.

¹ Dative, *hērōisin* (once only).

- a. Masculine endings are -ō, -or, -ōs, -ar, -ēs (gen. -idīs, -itīs).
 b. Feminine endings are -ās (gen. -ātīs), -ēs (gen. -īs), -is, -ys, -x, -s (following a consonant); also, -dō, -gō, (gen. -inīs), -iō (abstract and collective), and -ūs (gen. -ūdis, -ūtīs).
 c. Neuter endings are -a, -e, -ī, -y; -o, -l, -t; -men (gen. -mīnis); -ar, -ur, -ūs (gen. -oris, -oris).

66. The following are general Rules for the Gender of nouns of the third declension, classed *according to their stems*.

a. VOWEL-STEMS. — Stems in *i-*, having *-a* in the nominative, are Feminine, except those mentioned below (§ 67. a). Those having *-ō* in the nominative and those in *-al* and *-ar* (which have dropped the *-o*) are *neuter*.

b. LIQUID-STEMS. — Stems in *l-* are Masculine, except *sāl*, *fel*, *mel*, and sometimes *sāl* (N.).

Those in *min-* are Neuter, except *homō*, *nēmō*, *flāmen* (M.). Others in *in-* are masculine, except *pollen*, *unguen* (N.). Those in *ōn-* are masculine. Those in *din-*, *gin-*, *iōn-*, abstract and collective nouns, are feminine. Others in *ōn-*, with *cardō*, *margō*, *ōrdō*, *ūniō*, *sēniō*, *quaterniō*, are masculine.

Those in *r-* preceded by a short vowel are Neuter, except about 30 given below (§ 67. b). Those in *r-* preceded by a long vowel are masculine, except *soror*, *uxor*, *glōs*, *tellūs* (F.); *orīs*, *iūs*, *pūs*, *rūs*, *tūs* (*thūs*) (N.), in which the long vowel is due to contraction.

c. LABIAL STEMS (no neuters). — Stems in *b-* and *m-* are Feminine, except *chalybs*. Stems in *p-* are chiefly masculine (exceptions below, § 67. c).

d. LINGUAL STEMS. — Stems in *ād-*, *ēd-*, *id-*, *ūd-*, *aūd-*, *ūd-*, are Feminine, except *dromas*, *vas* (*vadīs*), *pēs*, *quadrupēs*, *obse*, *praeses*, *lapis* (M.). Those in *āt-*, *ūt-*, are feminine, except *patrials* (as *Arpīnās*), and the masc. plur. *penātēs* and *optimātēs*. Those in *ēd-*, *ēt-*, are masculine, except *meroēs* and *quiēs* with its compounds (F.). Those in *ēt-*, *īt-*, are masculine, except *abiēs*, *merges*, *seges*, *teges* (F.), and those which are common by signification. Those in *āt-* are neuter; those in *nt-* various (see list, § 67. d); those in *lt-*, *rt-*, feminine. (For a few isolated forms, see list, § 67.)

e. PALATAL STEMS. — Stems in *o-* preceded by a consonant or long vowel are Feminine, except *calx*, *deounx*, *phoenix*, *stomax*, *varvax* (M.). Those in *o-* preceded by a short vowel are chiefly masculine (for exceptions, see list, § 67. e); those in *y-*, masculine, except [*frūx*], *lūx*, *phalanx*, *syrinx*; also *nix* (*nivis*) (F.).

67. The following are the Forms of Inflection of nouns of the Third Declension, classed according to their Stems:

a. VOWEL-STEMS.

-ēs, -is: about 35 nouns (see list, § 51. a), feminine, except *tudēs, vāsēs, verrēs, m.*

-is, -is: about 100 nouns, chiefly feminine, as *fēlis, pellis*.

Exc. — *aedilis, annis, anguis, c., annālis, antēs (pl.), assis, axis, būris, callis, c., canālis, c., canis, c., cassis, caulis, civis, c., clūnis, c., collis, crinis, c., ēnsis, fuscis, finis, c., follis, fūnis, c., fustis, hostis, c., ignis, iuvenis, c., lactēs (pl.), c., larēs (pl.), mārēs (pl.), mēnsis, molāris, nātālis, orbis, pānis, pedis, c., piscis, postis, sentis, c., sodālis, testis, c., torris, unguis, vectis, veprēs (pl.), c., vermis, m.* [Those marked c. are sometimes feminine; the rest are masculine.]

-ī, -is: upwards of 20 nouns, all neuter, as *mare, cubile*.

-āl, -ālis; -ār, -āris: 24 neuter, with several used only in the plural, as *animal, Sāturnālia* (see list, § 53. c; for those in -ār, -āris, see Liquid Stems).

-ēr, -ris: *imber, linter, ūter, venter*, — all m. except *linter*, which is commonly f. [For other apparently consonant stems, see below.]

PECULIAR. — *grūs, gruis, f.; rhūs, rhois (acc. rhum), m.; sūs, suis, c., hērōs, hērōis, m.; misy, -yos, f.; oxyos, -yos, f.; cinnabarē, gummi, sināplī, n. (indecl.); chelys, -yn, -y, f.; bōs, bovis, c.*

b. LIQUID-STEMS.

-l, -lis: 9 nouns, masculine, as *cōsul, sōl*, except *sīl*, and (sometimes) *sāl, n.*

-ōn, -ōnis: [*trēn*], *splēn, m.*

-ōn, -ōnis: *Hymēn, m.*

-ōn, -inis: 10 nouns, m., as *libicen*; except *pollen, unguen, glūten, sanguen, n.*

-mōn, -mōnis (verbal), as *agmen*; about 60 nouns, n.; but *flāmen, m.*

-ōn, -ōnis (Greek): *canōn, daemōn, gnōmōn, m.; aēdōn, alcyōn, ancōn, sindōn, f.*

-ō, -ōnis: about 70 nouns, all masculine, as *sermō*; with many family names, as *Cicerō*.

-iō, -iōnis (material objects, etc.), as *pugiō*; about 30 nouns, masculine.

-iō, -iōnis (abstract and collective), as *legiō, regiō*; upwards of 180 feminine, including many rare verbal abstracts

-i, -inis: *homō, turbō, nēmō, Apollō, m.*

- ōō, -ōinis**: nearly 50 nouns, as *grandō*, feminine except *cardō, orōō*, M.
 -**gō, -gīnis**: about 40 nouns, as *compāgō*, feminine; with *margō*, M. or F.
 -**ār, -āris**: *baccar, iubar, nectar*, N.; *lār, salar*, M.
 -**ēr, -ris**: *accipiter, frāter, pater*, M., *māter*, F.
 -**ēr, -ēris** (mostly Greek): *crātēr, hallēr, prestēr*, M., *vēr*, N.
 -**ēr, -ēris**: *āēr, aethēr*, M.
 -**ēr, -ēris**: *acipenser, agger, ānser, assar, aster, cancer, carcer, later, passer, vesper, vōmer*, M.; *mulier*, F.; *acer, cadāver, cicer, laver, papāver, pīper, sīler, siser, sāber, tūber, tūber, ūber, verber*, N.
 -**ēs, -ēris**: *Cerēs*, F.
 -**īs, -ēris**: *cinis, cucumis, pulvis, vōmis*, M.
 -**ōr (-ōs), -ōris**: nearly 70 nouns (besides many denoting the Agent, formed upon verb-stems), as *favor, orator*, all M. except *soror, uxor*, F.
 -**ōr, -ōris**: *castor, rhētor*, M.; *arbor*, F.; *ador, aequor, marmor*, N.
 -**ōs, -ōris**: *flōs, mōs, rōs*, M.; *glōs*, F.; *ōs*, N.
 -**ūr, -ūris**: *fūr*, C.
 -**ūr, -ūris**: 9 masculine, as *vultur*; with *fulgur, guttur, murmur, sulfur*, N.
 -**ūr, -ōris**: *ebur, femur, iecur, rōbur (-us)*, N.
 -**ūs, -ēris**: 20 neuter, as *genus*; also, *Venus*, F.
 -**ūs, -ōris**: 14 nouns, as *pectus*, neuter, except *lepus*, M.
 -**ūs, -ūris**: *mūs*, M.; *tellūs*, F.; *crūs, iūs, pūs, rūs, tūs (thūs)* N.
 PECULIAR.—*Aniō, -iēnis*; *delphīn, -īnis*; *sanguis (-en), -īnis*; *senex, senis*, M.; *carō, carnis*, F.; *aes, aeris*; *far, farris*; *fel, fellis*; *mel, mellis*; *iter, itineris*; *iecur, iecinōris (iecoris)*, N.; *glīs, glīris*, M.

C. LABIAL.

- bs, -bis**: *chalybs*, M.; *plēbs, trabs, urbs*, F.; *scobs, scrobs*, C.¹
 -**ms, -mis**: *hiems* (often written *hiemps*), F.
 -**ps, -pis**: 15 nouns, masculine, as *princeps*; except [*†daps*], *merops, ops, stips*, F.; *forceps, stirps*,² C.

D. LINGUAL.

- ās, -ādis** (mostly Greek): 14 nouns, feminine, as *lampas*; except *dromas, vas*, M.
 -**ēs, -ēdis**: *cūpēs, hērēs*, M.; *mercēs*, F.; also, *praes, praedis*.
 -**ēs, -ēdis**: *pēs, quadrupēs*, M.; *compēs*, F.
 -**ēs, -īdis**: *obses, praeses*, C.

¹ These five were originally i-stems.² Originally i-stem.

- ia**, -**īdis**: nearly 40 nouns (mostly Greek), as *cassis*, *aegis*, F.; *lapis*, M.
 -**ōs**, -**ōdis**: *custōs*, C.
 -**ēs**, -**ētis**: *nepōs*, M.; *cōs*, *dōs*, F.; *sacerdōs*, C.
 -**ūs**, -**ūdis**: *incūs*, *pālūs*, *subscūs*; with *fraus*, *laus*, *pecūs* (-**ūdis**), F.
 -**ā**, -**ātis** (Greek): nearly 20 nouns, neuter, as *poēma*.
 -**ās**, -**ātis**: about 20 (besides derivatives), M., *satiās*, F.; also, *andis* (-**ātis**), C.
 -**ēs**, -**ētis**: *cellēs*, *lebēs*, *māgnēs*, M.; *quiēs*, *requiēs*, *inquiēs*, F.
 -**ēs**, -**ētis**: *ariēs*, *pariēs*, M.; *abiēs*, F.
 -**ēs**, -**ētis**: *seges*, *teges*, F.; *interpres*, C.
 -**ēs**, -**ītis**: about 20, masculine or common, as *stipes*, *hospes*.
 -**ūs**, -**ūtis**: *iuventūs*, *salus*, *senectūs*, *servitūs*, *virtūs*, F.
 -**ōns**, -**ōdis**: *frōns*, *glāns*, *iuglāns*, F.
 -**ōns**, -**ōtis**: nearly 20 (besides many participles used as nouns), common, as *infāns*; *dēns*, *fōns*, *mōns*, *pōns*, M.; *frōns*, *gēns*, *lēns*, *mēns*, F.
 -**rs**, -**rtis** (originally i-stems): *ars*, *pars*, *cohors*, *fors*, *Mārs*, *mors*, *sors*, F.
 -**ya**, -**yādis**; -**a**, -**antis** (Greek): *chlamys*, F.; *Atlās*, -**antis**, M.
 * PECULIAR. — **ās**, *assis*, M.; *līs*, *litis*; *nox*, *noctis*; *puls*, *pultis*, F.; *caput*, -**itis**; *cor*, *cordis*; *hēpar*, -**atis**; *ōs*, *ossis*; *vās*, *vāsis*, N.; also, compounds of -**pūs**, -**pōdis**, M., (foot), as *tripūs*; *lāc*, *lactis*, N.,

c. PALATAL.

- ax**, -**ācis**: *anthrax*, *corax*, *fracēs* (pl.), *panax*, *scolōpax*, M.; *fax*, *styrax* (*storax*), F.
 -**āx**, -**ācis**: *cnōdāx*, *cordāx*, *līmāx*, *thōrāx*, M.; *pāx*, F.
 -**ōx**, -**ōcis**: *ālēx*, M. or F.; *vervēx*, M.
 -**ex**, -**ēcis**: upwards of 40 nouns, masculine, as *apex*, *vertex*, except *cārex*, *forfex*, *ilex*, *imbrex*, *nex* (*nēcis*), *pellex*, F. (*imbrex* also M.)
 -**ix**, -**īcis**: *appendix*, *coxendix*, *filix*, *fornix*, *larix*, *salix*, *struix*, *vārix*, F.
 -**ix**, -**īcis**: about 30 nouns, feminine, as *cervix*, *rādix*; besides many in -**trix**, regular feminines of nouns of agency in -**tor** (§ 162. a).
 -**ōx**, -**ōcis**: *celōx*, *vīx*, F.
 -**ux**, -**ūcis**: *dux*, C.; *crux*, *nuux*, F.
 -**ūx**, -**ūcis**: *balāx*, *lūx*, F.
 -**x**, -**cis**: *arx*, *calx*, *fulx*, *lynx*, *merx* (def.), F.; *calx*, *calyx*, M.
 -**x**, -**gis**: *conīux* (-**na**), *grax*, *rēmex* (gen. -**igis**), *rēx*, M. or C.; [*tfrūx*] (def.), *lēx*, *phalanx*, F.; with a few rare names of animals.
 Other nouns in -**x** are *nix*, *nivis*; *nox*, *noctis*; *supellex*, -**ectilis**, F.; *onyx*, *yohis*, M. and F.; *Styx*, *Stygis*, F.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

68. The Stem of nouns of the Fourth Declension ends in *u-*. This is usually weakened to *i* before *-bus*. Masculine and feminine nouns form the nominative by adding *-us*; neuters have for nominative the simple stem, but with *-u* (long).

Nouns of the fourth declension are declined as follows:—

	<i>hand</i> (F.).	<i>lake</i> (M.).	<i>knee</i> (N.).
Sing.	STEM <i>manu-</i>	<i>lacu-</i>	<i>genu-</i>
NOM.	<i>manus</i>	<i>lacus</i>	<i>genū</i>
GEN.	<i>manūs</i>	<i>lacūs</i>	<i>genū (ūs)</i>
DAT.	<i>manui (ū)</i>	<i>lacui (ū)</i>	<i>genū</i>
ACC.	<i>manum</i>	<i>lacum</i>	<i>genū</i>
VOC.	<i>manus</i>	<i>lacus</i>	<i>genū</i>
ABL.	<i>manū</i>	<i>lacū</i>	<i>genū</i>
Plur.			
NOM.	<i>manūs</i>	<i>lacūs</i>	<i>genua</i>
GEN.	<i>manuum</i>	<i>lacuum</i>	<i>genuum</i>
DAT.	<i>manibus</i>	<i>lacubus</i>	<i>genibus</i>
ACC.	<i>manūs</i>	<i>lacūs</i>	<i>genua</i>
VOC.	<i>manūs</i>	<i>lacūs</i>	<i>genua</i>
ABL.	<i>manibus</i>	<i>lacubus</i>	<i>genibus</i>

NOTE.—The fourth declension is only a modified form of the third. The relation is seen in the following parallel forms, uncontracted (of the third) and contracted (of the fourth).

<i>manus</i>	<i>manūs (ūs)</i>
† <i>manuis (ūs)</i>	<i>manuum (um)</i>
<i>manui (ū)</i>	<i>manubus (ibus)</i>
<i>manum</i>	† <i>manues (ūs)</i>
<i>manus</i>	† <i>manues (ūs)</i>
† <i>manue (ū)</i>	<i>manubus (ibus)</i>

69. GENDER.—*a.* Most nouns in *-us* are Masculine. The following are Feminine: *acus, anus, colus, domus, idūs* (pl.), *manus, nurus, porticus, quinquātrūs* (pl.), *soorus, tribus*, with a few names of plants and trees. Also, rarely, *areus, penus, specus*.

b. The only neuters are *cornū, genū, pedū* (§ 78. I. *c*), *verū*.

70. CASE-FORMS.—*a.* The uncontracted form *-uis* (sometimes *-uos*) is sometimes found in the genitive, as *senātūos*; and an old (irregular) genitive in *-ī* is used by some writers: as, *ornātī, senātī*.

b. The nominative plural has rarely the form *-uus*.

c. The genitive plural is sometimes contracted into *-um*.

d. The following retain the regular dative and ablative plural in *-ibus*: *artus, partus, portus, tribus, verū*; also dissyllables in *-ous*: *as, lacus* (but sometimes *portibus, veribus*).

e. Most names of plants, and *colus, distaff*, have also forms of the second declension.

f. *Domus, house*, has (either originally, or by mistake) two stems ending in *u-* and *o-* (cf. gen. in *-i*, § 70. a), and is declined as follows:¹—

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
NOM.	<i>domus</i>	<i>domūs</i>
GEN.	<i>domūs</i> (<i>domi</i> , loc.)	<i>domuum</i> (<i>domōrum</i>)
DAT.	<i>domui</i> (<i>domō</i>)	<i>domibus</i>
ACC.	<i>domum</i>	<i>domōs</i> (<i>domūs</i>)
VOC.	<i>domus</i>	<i>domūs</i>
ABL.	<i>domō</i> (<i>domū</i>)	<i>domibus</i>

g. The only locative form of the fourth declension is *domui*. But even this is rare, and *domi* is almost universally used instead.

h. An old form of the ablative ends in *-d*: *as, magistratū* (cf. § 62. a).

71. Most nouns of the fourth declension are formed from verb-stems, or roots, by means of the suffix *-tus (-sus)* (cf. § 163. b): *as, cantus, song, CAN, canō, sing; cāsus* (for *cad-tus*), *chance, CAD, cadō, fall; exsulātus, exile, from exsulō, to be an exile (exsul)*. Many are formed either from verb-stems not in use, or by analogy: *as, cōnsulātus* (as if from *cōnsulō, -āre*), *senātus, incestus*.

a. The Supines of verbs (§ 109. c) are the accusative and ablative (or dative, perhaps both) of derivatives in *-tus (-sus)*: *as, auditum, memoratū*.

b. Of many verbal derivatives only the ablative is used as a noun: *as, iussū (meō), by (my) command; so iniussū (populi), without (the people's) order*. Of some only the dative: *as, memoratui, divisiui*.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

72. The Stem of nouns of the Fifth Declension ends in *-e*, which appears in all the cases. The nominative is formed from the stem by adding *-s*.

¹ The forms in parenthesis are less common. But the form *domi* is regular as locative, though genitive in Plautus; *domōrum* is poetic.

These nouns are thus declined.—

	SING. <i>thing</i> (F.)	PLUR.	SING. <i>day</i> (M.)	PLUR.	<i>faith</i> (F.).
	STEM <i>rē-</i>		<i>diē-</i>		<i>fidē-</i>
NOM.	<i>rēs</i>	<i>rēs</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>fidēs</i>
GEN.	<i>rēi</i>	<i>rērum</i>	<i>diēi</i> (<i>diēs</i>)	<i>diērum</i>	<i>fidēi</i>
DAT.	<i>rēi</i>	<i>rēbus</i>	<i>diēi</i> (<i>diēs</i>)	<i>diēbus</i>	<i>fidēi</i>
ACC.	<i>rem</i>	<i>rēs</i>	<i>diem</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>fidem</i>
VOC.	<i>rēs</i>	<i>rēs</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>diēs</i>	<i>fidēs</i>
ABL.	<i>rē</i>	<i>rēbus</i>	<i>diē</i>	<i>diēbus</i>	<i>fidē</i>

NOTE.—The *ē* has been shortened in the genitive and dative singular of *fidēs*, *spēs*, *rēs*, but in these it is found long in early Latin.

73. GENDER.—All nouns of this declension are feminine, except *diēs* (usually M.), *day*, and *merīdiēs* (M.), *noon*. *Diēs* is sometimes feminine in the singular, especially in phrases indicating a fixed time, and regularly feminine when used of time in general: as, *longa diēs*, *a long time*; *cōstitutā diē*, *on a set day*; also in the poets: as, *pulchra diēs*, *a fine day*.

74. CASE-FORMS.—*a*. The Genitive singular anciently ended in *-ēs* (cf. *-ās* of first declension, § 36. *b*). The genitive ending *-ēi* was sometimes contracted into *-ēi*, *-ī*, or *-ē*: as, *diēi* (ÆN. i. 636), and the phrases *plēbī-scītum*, *tribūnus plēbēi*. An old Dative in *-ī* or *-ē* also is mentioned by grammarians.

b. The fifth declension is only a variety of the first, and several nouns have forms of both: as, *māteria*, *-iēs*; *saevitia*, *-iēs*.¹ The genitive and dative in *-ēi* are rarely found in these words.

c. The Locative form of this declension ends in *-ē* (cf. dative *-ē* under *a*). It is found only in certain adverbs and expressions of time: as, *hodiē* (for *hoi-diē*, cf. *huio*), *to-day*; *perendiē*, *day after to-morrow*; *diē quārtō* (old, *quārti*), *the fourth day*; *prīdiē*, *the day before*.

d. Of nouns of the fifth declension, *diēs* and *rēs* only are declined throughout. Most want the plural, which is, however, found in the nominative and accusative in the following: *aciēs*, *effigiēs*, *fluviiēs*, *faciēs*, *glaciēs*, *seriēs*, *speciēs*, *spēs*.²

¹ Nouns in *-iēs* (except *diēs*) are original *i*-stems. The others are probably (excepting *rēs*) corrupted *a*-stems, like *mōiēs* (cf. *moles-tus*); *diēs*, cf. *diurnus*; *spēs* (cf. *spērō*). Some vary between the fifth and the third declension: as, *requiēs*, *satiēs* (*satiās*, gen. *-ētis*), *plēbēs* (*plēba*, *plēbis*), *fame* (*fameās*, gen. *-is*).

² The forms *faciērum*, *speciērum*, *speciēbus*, *spērūm*, *spēbūs*, are cited by grammarians, also *spērēs*, *spērībūs*.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

75. Some nouns are ordinarily found in the Singular number only (*singulāria tantum*). These are —

1. Most proper names: as, *Caesar, Cæsar, Gallia, Gaul*.
2. Names of things not counted, but reckoned in mass: as, *aurum, gold; aer, air; triticum, wheat*.
3. Abstract nouns: as, *ambitiō, ambition; fortitūdō, courage; calor, heat*.

But many of these are used in the plural in some other sense. Thus —

a. A proper name may be applied to two or more persons or places, or even things, and so become strictly common: as, *duodecim Caesarēs, the twelve Cæsars; Galliae, the two Gauls* (Cis- and Trans-alpine); *Castōrēs, Castor and Pollux; Iovēs, images of Jupiter*.

b. Particular objects may be denoted: as, *aera, bronze utensils, nivēs, snowflakes*; or different kinds of a thing: as, *aerēs, airs* (good and bad).

c. The plural of abstract nouns denotes *occasions or instances* of the quality, or the like: as, *quaedam excellentiae, some cases of superiority; ōtia, periods of rest; calōrēs, frigora, times of heat and cold*.

76. Some nouns are commonly found only in the Plural (*plūralia tantum* (cf. § 79. c)). Such are —

1. Many proper names: as, *Athēnae, Athens, Thūrii, Philippi, Vēii*, names of towns, *Adelphoe* (*The Adelphe*), the name of a play; but especially names of festivals and games: as, *Olympia, the Olympic Games; Bacchānalia, feast of Bacchus; Quinquārtiles, festival of Minerva; ludi Rōmāni, the Roman Games*.

2. Names of classes: as, *optimātēs, the upper classes; maiōrēs, ancestors; liberī, children; penātēs, household gods*.

3. Words plural by signification: as, *arma, weapons; artūs, joints; divitiae, riches; scālae, stairs; valvae, folding-doors; forēs, double-doors*.

These often have a corresponding singular in some form or other, as noun or adjective.

a. As noun, to denote a single object: as, *Bacchānal, a spot sacred to Bacchus; optimēs, an aristocrat*.

b. As adjective: as, *Catō Maior, Cato the Elder*.

c. In a sense rare, or found only in early Latin: as, *scāla, a ladder; valva, a door; artus, a joint*.

77. Many nouns are defective in case-forms:—

1. Indeclinable nouns: *fās, nefās, inatar, necesse, nihil, opus* (*need*), *secus*.

2. Nouns found in one case only (*monophtotes*): as.—

a. In the nom. sing. *glōa*, F.

b. In the gen. sing. *dicōis, nauof*, M.

c. In the dat. sing. *memorātuf*, M. (cf. § 71. *b*).

d. In the acc. sing. *amussim*, M.

e. In the abl. sing. *pondō*, N.; *māne*, N. (Both also treated as indeclinable nouns. Of *māne* an old locative form *māni* is found.) *iūssū, iniūssū*, M. (§ 71. *b*).

f. In the acc. plur. *infitiās, suppetiās*.

3. Nouns found in two cases only (*diptotes*)

a. In the nom. and abl. sing. *fora, forte*, F.; *astus, astū*, M.

b. In the gen. and abl. sing. *spontis, sponte*, F.

c. In the dat. and acc. sing. *vēnuī* (*vēnō* in Tac.), *vēnum*, M.

d. In the acc. sing. and plur. *dicam, dicās*, F.

e. In the acc. and abl. plur. *forās, forīs*, F. (cf. *forēs*).

4. Nouns found in three cases only (*triphtotes*).

a. In the nom., acc., and abl. sing. *impetus, -um, -ū* (M.); *luēs, -em, -ē* (F.).

b. In the nom., acc., and dat. or abl. plur. *grātēs, -ibus* (F.).

c. In the nom., gen., and dat. or abl. plur. *iūgera, -um, -ibus* (N., but *iūgerum*, etc., in the sing., cf. § 78. 1. *b*).

5. Nouns declined regularly in the plural, but defective in the singular.

a. Nouns found in the sing., in gen., dat., acc., abl.: *dictōnis, -i, -em, -e* (F.); *frūgis, -i, -em, -e* (F.); *opis, -i* (once only), *-em, -e* (F., nom. as a divinity, see § 46).

b. Nouns found in the dat., acc., abl.: *precī, -em, -e* (F.).

c. Nouns found in the acc. and abl.: *cassem, -e* (F.); *sordem, -e* (F.).

d. Nouns found in the abl. only: *ambāge* (F.); *fauce* (F.); *obloē* (C., nom. *obex* rare).

6. Nouns regular in the singular, defective in the plural.

a. *iūs* and *rūs* have only *iūra, rūra*.

b. *calx, oor, cōs, orux, fax, faex, lūx, nex, ōs, pām, pām, praes, rōs, sāl, sāl, tūs* (*thūs*), *vas*, want the genitive plural.

c. Most nouns of the fifth declension want the whole or part of the plural (see § 74. *d*).

7. Nouns defective in both singular and plural.

a. Nouns found in the nom., acc. sing.; nom., acc., abl. plur.:
sentis, -em; -ēs, -ibus.

b. Nouns found in the gen., acc., abl. sing.; nom., acc., dat., abl. plur.:
violis, -em, -e; -ēs, -ibus.

c. Nouns found in the gen., dat., acc., and abl. sing.; gen. plur. wanting: dapis, -i, -em, -e.

VARIABLE NOUNS.

78. Many nouns vary either in Declension or Gender.

1. In Declension (*heteroclites, nomina abundantia*).

a. colus (F.), distaff; domus (F.), house (see § 70. f), and many names of plants in -us, vary between the second and fourth declensions.

b. Some nouns vary between the second and third: as, iūgerum, -i, abl. -e, plur. -a, -um, etc.; Mulciber, gen. -berī and -beris; sequester, gen. -trī and -tris; vās, vāsis, and vāsum, -i.

c. Some vary between the second, third, and fourth: penus, penum, gen. -i and -oris, abl. penū.

d. Many nouns vary between the first and the fifth (see § 74. b).

e. requiēs has gen. -ētis, dat. wanting, acc. -ētem or -em; famēs has abl. famē (§ 57. c); pūbēs (pūbis, pūber) (M.) has -eris, -em, -e; pecus has pecoris, etc., but also nom. pecū, dat. pecuī; pl. pecua, pecuum, pecubus.

f. Many vary between different stems of the same declension: femur (N.), gen. -oris, also -inis (as from fēmen); iecur (N.), gen. iecinoria, iecinoris, iecoris; mūnus (N.), pl. mūnera and mūnia.

2. In Gender (*heterogeneous nouns*).

a. The following have a masculine form in -us and a neuter in -um: balteus, cāseus, clipeus, collum, cingulum, pilus, tergum, vallum, with many others of rare occurrence.

b. The following have in the plural a different gender from the singular:

balneum (N.), bath;	balneae (F.), baths (an establishment).
caelum (N.), heaven;	caelōs (M. acc.).
carbasus (F.), a sail;	carbasa (N.), sails (-ōrum).
dēlicium (N.), pleasure;	dēliciae (F.), pe .
epulum (N.), feast;	epulae (F.), feast.
frēnum (N.), a bit;	frēnī (M.) or frēna (N.), a bridle.
iocus (M.), a jest;	ioca (N.), locī (M.).
rāstrum (N.), a rake;	rāstrī (M.), rāstra (N.).
locus (M.), place;	loca (N.), loca (N.), usually topics, spots.

[For § 79. a, b (old edition) see § 78. 2. a, b.]

79 [79. c in old edition]. Many nouns have irregularities of Number either in their ordinary or occasional use.

a. Many nouns vary in meaning as they are found in the Singular or Plural: as, —

aedēs, -is (F.), <i>temple</i> ;	aedēs, -ium, <i>house</i> .
aqua (F.), <i>water</i> ;	aquae, <i>a watering-place</i> .
auxilium (N.), <i>help</i> ;	auxilia, <i>auxiliaries</i> .
bonum (N.), <i>a good</i> ;	bona, <i>property</i> .
carcer (M.), <i>dungeon</i> ;	carcerēs, <i>barriers (of race-course)</i> .
castrum (N.), <i>fort</i> ;	castra, <i>camp</i> .
cōdicillus (M.), <i>bit of wood</i> ;	cōdicilli, <i>tablets</i> .
comitium (N.), <i>place of assembly</i> ;	comitia, <i>an election (town-meeting)</i> .
cōpia (F.), <i>plenty</i> ;	cōpiae, <i>troops</i> .
fidēs (F.), <i>harp-string</i> ;	fidēs, <i>lyre</i> .
finis (M.), <i>end</i> ;	finēs, <i>bounds, territories</i> .
fortūna (F.), <i>fortune</i> ;	fortūnae, <i>possessions</i> .
grātia (F.), <i>favor (rarely, thanks)</i> ;	grātiae, <i>thanks (also, the Graces)</i> .
hortus (M.), <i>a garden</i> ;	horti, <i>pleasure-grounds</i> .
impedimentum (N.), <i>hinderance</i> ;	impedimenta, <i>baggage</i> .
littera (F.), <i>letter (of alphabet)</i> ;	litterae, <i>epistle</i> .
locus (M.), <i>place [pl. loca (N.)]</i> ;	loci, <i>topics</i> . (In early writers the regular plur.)
lūdus (M.), <i>sport</i> ;	lūdī, <i>public games</i> .
nātālis (M.), <i>birthday</i> ;	nātālēs, <i>descent</i> .
opera (F.), <i>work</i> ;	operae, <i>day-laborers ("hands")</i> .
[ops] opis (F.), <i>help (§ 46)</i> ;	opēs, <i>resources, wealth</i> .
pars (F.), <i>a part</i> ;	partēs, <i>part (on the stage), party</i> .
plāga (F.), <i>region</i> ;	plāgae, <i>snarcs</i> .
rōstrum (N.), <i>beak of a ship</i> ;	rōstra, <i>speaker's platform</i> .
sāl (M. or N.), <i>salt</i> ;	salēs, <i>witticisms</i> .
tabella (F.), <i>tablet</i> ;	tabellae, <i>documents, records</i> .

b. The singular of a noun usually denoting an individual is sometimes used collectively to denote a group: as, *Poenus, the Carthaginians*; *miles, the soldiery*; *eques, the cavalry*.

c. Of many nouns the plural is usually, though not exclusively, used (cf. § 76): as, *oervioēs, the neck*; *Quirītēs, Romans*; *viscera, flesh*; *tanōēs, throat*.

d. The poets often use the plural number for the singular, sometimes for metrical reasons, sometimes from a mere fashion: as, *ōra* (for *ōs*), *the face*; *scēptra* (for *scēptum*), *sceptre*; *silentia* (for *silentium*), *silence* (cf. § 75. c).

PROPER NAMES.

80. A Roman had regularly three names, denoting the *person*, the *gens*, and the *family*.

a. Thus, in the name **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō**, we have **Mārcus**, the *prænomen*, or personal name (like a Christian or given name); **Tullius**, the *nōmen* (properly an adjective), *i.e.* the name of the gens, or house, whose original head was a (real or supposed) Tullus; **Cicerō**, the *cōgnōmen*, or family name, often in its origin a nickname, — in this case from *cicer*, a *velch*, or small pea.

NOTE. — When two persons of the same family are mentioned together, the cognomen is usually put in the plural: as, **Pūblius et Servius Sullae**.

b. A fourth or fifth name¹ was sometimes given. Thus the complete name of Scipio the Younger was **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Africānus Aemiliānus**. **Africānus**, from his exploits in Africa; **Aemiliānus**, as adopted from the *Æmilian* gens.

c. Women had commonly in classical times no personal names, but were known only by the *nōmen* of their gens. Thus, the wife of Cicero was **Terentia**, and his daughter **Tullia**. A younger daughter would have been called **Tullia secunda** or *minor*, and so on.

d. The commonest prænomens are thus abbreviated: —

A. Aulus.	L. Lūcius.	Q. Quintus.
App. Apptius.	M. Mārcus.	Ser. Servius.
C. (G.) Gāius (<i>Caius</i>) (cf. § 6).	M'. Mānius.	Sex. Sextus.
Cn. (Gn.) Gnaeus (<i>Cneius</i>).	Mam. Māmercus.	Sp. Spurius.
D. Decimus.	N. Numerius.	T. Titus.
K. Kaesō (<i>Caeso</i>).	P. Pūblius.	Ti. Tiberius.

e. A feminine prænomen is sometimes abbreviated with an inverted letter: as, **D** for **Gāia** (*Caia*).

¹ The Romans of the classical period had no separate name for these additions, but later grammarians invented the word *agnōmen* to express them.

CHAPTER IV.—*Adjectives.*

INFLECTION.

ADJECTIVES and Participles are in general formed and declined like Nouns, differing from them only in their use. In accordance with their use, they distinguish gender by different forms in the same word, and correspond with their nouns in *gender*, *number*, and *case*. They are (1) of the First and Second Declensions, or (2) of the Third Declension.¹

1. First and Second Declensions.

81. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (a- and o-stems) are declined in the Masculine like *servus*, in the Feminine like *stella*, and in the Neuter like *bellum*; as, —

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
STEM bono- bonā- bonu-					
NOM. bonus	bonā	bonum	boni	bonae	bona
GEN. boni	bonae	boni	bonorum	bonarum	bonorum
DAT. bono	bonae	bono	bonis	bonis	bonis
ACC. bonum	bonam	bonum	bonos	bonas	bona
VOC. bone	bona	bonum	boni	bonae	bona
ABL. bono	bonā	bono	bonis	bonis	bonis

¹ Most Latin adjectives and participles are either o-stems with the corresponding feminine ā-stems, or i-stems. Many, however, were originally stems in ū- or a consonant, which passed over, in all or most of their cases, into the i-declension, for which Latin had a special fondness. (Compare the endings -ēs and -is of the third declension with the Greek -es and -as; nēvis (nom.) with the Greek νῆϋς; brevīs with brevis; cornū with bioornis; lingua with bilinguis; cor, corde, corda, with discors, -di, -dis, -dium; suavis with sēs; ferēna, -entia, with φέρων, -οντα.) A few, which in other languages are nouns, retain the consonant-form: as, vetus = tree. Comparatives also retain the consonant form in most of their cases.

The masculine genitive singular of Adjectives in -ius ends in -ii, and the vocative in -ie; not in -i, as in Nouns (cf. § 40. b, c): as, *Lacedaemonius*, -ii, -ie.

NOTE. — The possessive *meus*, *my*, has the vocative masculine *mi* (cf. § 98. 3).

82. Stems ending in *ro-* preceded by *ē* or a consonant (also *satur*) form the masculine nominative like noun-stems in *ro-* of the second declension (cf. *puer*, *ager*, § 38). They are thus declined. —

	<i>miser</i> , <i>wretched</i> .			<i>niger</i> , <i>black</i> .		
	STEM <i>miserō-</i> , <i>ā-</i> , <i>o-</i>			STEM <i>nigrō-</i> , <i>ā-</i> , <i>o-</i>		
Sing.						
N. <i>miser</i>	<i>misera</i>	<i>miserum</i>	<i>niger</i>	<i>nigra</i>	<i>nigrum</i>	
G. <i>miseri</i>	<i>miserae</i>	<i>miseri</i>	<i>nigri</i>	<i>nigrae</i>	<i>nigri</i>	
D. <i>miserō</i>	<i>miserae</i>	<i>miserō</i>	<i>nigrō</i>	<i>nigrae</i>	<i>nigrō</i>	
Ac. <i>miserum</i>	<i>miseram</i>	<i>miserum</i>	<i>nigrum</i>	<i>nigram</i>	<i>nigrum</i>	
V. <i>miser</i>	<i>misera</i>	<i>miserum</i>	<i>niger</i>	<i>nigra</i>	<i>nigrum</i>	
Ab. <i>miserō</i>	<i>miserā</i>	<i>miserō</i>	<i>nigrō</i>	<i>nigrā</i>	<i>nigrō</i>	
Plur.						
N. <i>miseri</i>	<i>miserae</i>	<i>misera</i>	<i>nigri</i>	<i>nigrae</i>	<i>nigra</i>	
G. <i>miserōrum</i>	<i>miserārum</i>	<i>miserōrum</i>	<i>nigrōrum</i>	<i>nigrārum</i>	<i>nigrōrum</i>	
D. <i>miseris</i>	<i>miseris</i>	<i>miseris</i>	<i>nigris</i>	<i>nigris</i>	<i>nigris</i>	
Ac. <i>miserōs</i>	<i>miserās</i>	<i>misera</i>	<i>nigrōs</i>	<i>nigrās</i>	<i>nigra</i>	
V. <i>miseri</i>	<i>miserae</i>	<i>misera</i>	<i>nigri</i>	<i>nigrae</i>	<i>nigra</i>	
Ab. <i>miseris</i>	<i>miseris</i>	<i>miseris</i>	<i>nigris</i>	<i>nigris</i>	<i>nigris</i>	

a. Stems in *ōro-* (as *prōcōrus*), with *mōrigērus*, *propērus*, have the regular nominative masculine in -us.

b. Like *miser* are declined *asper*, *gibber*, *lacer*, *liber*, *prosper* (also *prosperus*), *satur* (-ura, -urum), *tener*, with compounds of -fer and -ger: as, *saetiger*, -era, -erum, *bristle-bearing*; also, usually, *dexter*. In these the *e* belongs to the stem; but in *dextra* it is often omitted: as, *dextra manus*, *the right hand*.

c. Like *niger* are declined *aeger*, *āter*, *orōber*, *faber*, *glaber*, *integer*, *lūdicer*, *macer*, *piger*, *pulcher*, *ruber*, *sacer*, *scaber*, *minister*, *taeter*, *vafer*; also the possessives *noster*, *vester* (p. 64. 3).

d. The following feminines lack a masculine singular nominative in classic use: *ōtera*, *īfera*, *postera*, *supera*. They are rarely found in the singular except in certain phrases: as, *posterō diē*, *the next day*.

NOTE. — A feminine ablative in -ō is found in a few Greek adjectives: as, *lecticō octophorō* (Verr. v. 27).

83. The following *o*-stems with their compounds have the genitive singular in -ius (one only having -ius) and the dative in -i in all genders: —

alius (N. *aliud*), *other*. **tōtus**, *whole*. **alter**,¹ *-terius*, *the other*.
nūllus, *no, none*. **ūllus**, *any*. **neuter**, *-trius*, *neither*.
sōlus, *alone*. **ūnus**, *one*. **uter**, *-trius*, *which (of two)*

Of these the singular is thus declined:—

	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	ūnus	ūna	ūndēm	uter	utra	utrum
GEN.	ūnius	ūnius	ūnius	utrius	utrius	utrius
DAT.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	utrī	utrī	utrī
ACC.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum	utrum	utram	utrum
ABL.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	utrō	utrā	utrō
NOM.	alius	alia	aliud ²	alter	altera	alterum
GEN.	alius	alius	alius	alterius	alterius	alterius
DAT.	aliī	aliī	aliī	alterī	alterī	alterī
ACC.	aliū	aliā	aliud	alterum	alterā	alterum
ABL.	aliō	aliā	aliō	alterō	alterā	alterō

a. The plural of these words is regular, like that of **bonus** (§ 81).

b. The *i* of the genitive-ending *-ius*, though originally long, may be made short in verse. **Alterius** is generally accented on the antepenult, as having the *i* permanently shortened.

Instead of **alius**, **alterius** is commonly used, or in the possessive sense the adjective **aliēnus**, *belonging to another, another's*.

In compounds—as **alterūter**—sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter. Thus, **alterī utri** or **alterutri**, *to one of the two*. • •

2. Third Declension.

Adjectives of the third declension are of *one, two, or three terminations*.

84. Adjectives of the third declension having stems in *i*—distinguished by being *parisyllabic* (§ 53. a)—have but one form for both Masculine and Feminine, and one for the neuter, and hence are called *adjectives of two terminations*. In the neuter the nominative ends in *-o*.

They are declined as follows:—

¹ The suffix *-ter*, in **alter**, **uter**, **neuter** is the same as the Greek comparative suffix *-tero(s)*. The stem of **alius** appears in early Latin and in derivatives as **al-** in the forms **alis**, **alid** (for **alius**, **aliud**), **aliter**, etc. The regular forms of the genitive and dative (as in **bonus**) are also found in early writers.

² The genitive in *-ius*, dative in *-ī*, and neuter in *-d* are pronominal (cf. § 308).

lēvis (stem *levi-*), *light*.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	<i>levi</i>	<i>leve</i>	<i>levēs</i>	<i>levia</i>
GEN.	<i>levi</i>	<i>levi</i>	<i>levium</i>	<i>levium</i>
DAT.	<i>levi</i>	<i>levi</i>	<i>levibus</i>	<i>levibus</i>
ACC.	<i>levem</i>	<i>leve</i>	<i>levi</i> (3s)	<i>levia</i>
ABL.	<i>levi</i>	<i>levi</i>	<i>levibus</i>	<i>levibus</i>

a. The following stems in *ri-* have the masc. nom. in *-er*: *acer*, *alacer*, *campester*, *celeber*, *equester*, *palfāster*, *pedester*, *puter*, *salāber*, *silvester*, *terrester*, *volucer*, and are called adjectives of *three terminations*. So also, *celer*, *celeric*, *celere*; and names of months in *-ber* (cf. § 51. b): *as*, *Octōber*.

These are declined as follows:—

acer, *keen*.

STEM *acri-*

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N., V.	<i>acer</i>	<i>acris</i>	<i>acre</i>	<i>acrēs</i>	<i>acrēs</i>	<i>acria</i>
GEN.	<i>acris</i>	<i>acris</i>	<i>acris</i>	<i>acrium</i>	<i>acrium</i>	<i>acrium</i>
DAT.	<i>acri</i>	<i>acri</i>	<i>acri</i>	<i>acribus</i>	<i>acribus</i>	<i>acribus</i>
ACC.	<i>acrem</i>	<i>acrem</i>	<i>acre</i>	<i>acris</i> (3s)	<i>acris</i> (3s)	<i>acria</i>
ABL.	<i>acri</i>	<i>acri</i>	<i>acri</i>	<i>acribus</i>	<i>acribus</i>	<i>acribus</i>

NOTE.—This formation is comparatively late, and hence, in the poets and in early Latin, either the masculine or the feminine form of these adjectives was sometimes used for both genders: as, *coetus alacris* (*Enn.*). In others, as *faenebris*, *fūnebris*, *illustris*, *lūgubris*, *mediocris*, *mulebris*, there is no separate masculine form at all. Thus:—

illustris, *brilliant*.

STEM *illustri-*

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	<i>illustris</i>	<i>illustre</i>	<i>illustres</i>	<i>illustria</i>
GEN.	<i>illustris</i>	<i>illustris</i>	<i>illustrium</i>	<i>illustrium</i>
DAT.	<i>illustri</i>	<i>illustri</i>	<i>illustribus</i>	<i>illustribus</i>
ACC.	<i>illustrem</i>	<i>illustre</i>	<i>illustri</i> (3s)	<i>illustria</i>
ABL.	<i>illustri</i>	<i>illustri</i>	<i>illustribus</i>	<i>illustribus</i>

b. CASE-FORMS.—Adjectives of two and three terminations, being true *i*-stems, retain in the ablative singular *-i*, in the neuter plural *-ia*, in the genitive plural *-ium*, and in the accusative plural regularly *-as* (see § 55 and p. 30, n. 2). But the forms of some are doubtful.

NOTE.—For metrical reasons, an ablative in *-e* sometimes occurs in poetry.

c. celer, swift, when used as a noun, denoting a military rank, has *celerum* in the genitive plural. The proper name *Celer* has the ablative in *-e*.

85. The remaining adjectives of the third declension are Consonant-stems; but all except Comparatives have the form of *i*-stems in the ablative singular *-i*, the nominative, accusative and vocative plural neuter *-ia*, and the genitive plural *-ium*. In the other cases they follow the rule of Consonant-stems.

NOTE.—The ablative singular of these words often has *-e*.

These adjectives (except comparatives) have the same nominative singular for all genders, and hence are called *adjectives of one termination*.¹ All except stems in *l*- or *r*- form the nominative singular from the stem by adding *-s*.

a. Adjectives of one termination are declined as follows:—

atrōx, <i>fierce</i> .			egēns, <i>needy</i> .		
St. atrōc-			St. egent-		
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.	
N., V.	atrōx		egēns		
GEN.	atrōcis		egētis		
DAT.	atrōcī		egētī		
ACC.	atrōcem	atrōx	egentem	egēns	
ABL.	atrōcī <i>or</i> atroce		egētī <i>or</i> egente		
Plur.					
N., V.	atrōcēs	atrōcia	egētēs	egētia	
GEN.	atrōcium		egētium		
DAT.	atrōcibus		egētibus		
ACC.	atrōcis (ēs)	atrōcia	egētis (ēs)	egētia	
ABL.	atrōcibus		egētibus		

¹ The regular feminine of these adjectives, by analogy of cognate languages, would end in *-ia*: this form does not appear in Latin adjectives, but is found in the abstracts *Amēntia* (from *Amēns*), *dēsidia* (from *dēsēs*), *accōrdia* (from *accōrds*), etc., and in proper names, as *Flōrentia* (cf. Greek *φειρεν* for *φειρεντα*). The neuter would regularly have in the nominative and accusative singular the simple stem, as *caput*, *cor(d-)*, *līc*, Greek *λεπιδ(α)*; but in all except liquid stems the masculine form in *-s* has forced itself not only upon the neuter nominative, but upon the accusative also, where it is wholly abnormal.

1. Other examples are the following:—

<i>concoro, harmonious.</i>				<i>iēns, going.</i>			<i>pār, equal.</i>		
STEM <i>concord-</i>				eunt-			pār-		
Sing.	M., F.	N.		M., F.	N.		M., F.	N.	
N., V.	concoro			iēns			pār		
GEN.	concordis			euntis			pāris		
DAT.	concordī			euntī			parī		
ACC.	concordem	concoro		euntem	iēns		parem	pār	
ABL.	.	concordī		eunte (I)			parī		
Plur.									
N., V.	concordēs	concordia		euntēs	euntia		parēs	paria	
GEN.	concordium			euntium			parium		
D., ABL.	concordibus			euntibus			paribus		
ACC.	concordīs (ēs)	concordia		euntīs (ēs)	euntia		parīs (ēs)	paria	
<i>praeceps, headlong.</i>				<i>dīves, rich.</i>			<i>ūber, fertile.</i>		
STEM <i>praecipit-</i>				dīvit-			ūber-		
Sing.	M., F.	N.		M., F.	N.		M., F.	N.	
N., V.	praeceps			dīves			ūber		
GEN.	praecipitis			dīvitis			ūberis		
DAT.	praecipitī			dīvītī			ūberī		
ACC.	praecipitem	praeceps		dīvitē	dīves		ūberem	ūber	
ABL.	praecipitī			dīvite			ūbere		
Plur.									
N., V.	praecipitēs	praecipitia		dīvitēs	[dītia]		ūberēs	ūbera	
GEN.	praecipitum¹			dīvitum			ūberum		
D., ABL.	praecipitibus			dīvītibus			ūberibus		
ACC.	praecipitīs (ēs)	praecipitia		dīvitīs (ēs)	dīvītia		ūberēs	ūbera	

vetus, old.

STEM <i>veter-</i> (for <i>vetero-</i>)				
SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
M., F.	N.		M., F.	N.
N., V.	<i>vetus</i>		<i>veterēs</i>	<i>vetera</i>
GEN.	<i>veteris</i>		<i>veterum</i>	
DAT.	<i>veterī</i>		<i>veteribus</i>	
ACC.	<i>veterem</i>	<i>vetus</i>	<i>veterēs</i>	<i>vetera</i>
ABL.	<i>vetere</i>		<i>veteribus</i>	

NOTE.—Of these *vetus* is originally an s-stem. In most s-stems the r has intruded itself into the nominative also, as *bi-corpor* (for *bi-corpos*), *dēgener* (for *dē-genēs*).

2. A few adjectives of one termination, used as nouns, have a feminine form in -a: as, *olienta*, *hospita*, with the appellative *Iūnō Sēscipta*.

¹ Given by grammarians, but not found.

3. Comparatives.

86. Comparatives are declined as follows:—

	melior, better.		plūs, more.	
	STEM melior- for meliōs-		plūr- for plūs-	
Sing.	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
N., V.	melior	melius	—	plūs
GEN.	melioris		—	plūris
DAT.	meliori		—	—
ACC.	meliorē	melius	—	plūs
ABL.	meliore or meliori		—	plūre
Plur.				
N., V.	meliorēs	meliora	plūrēs	plūra
GEN.	meliorum		plūrium	
DAT.	melioribus		plūribus	
ACC.	meliorēs (ēs)	meliora	plūris (ēs)	plūra
ABL.	melioribus		plūribus	

a. The stem of comparatives properly ended in *os*; but this became *or-* in all cases except the neuter singular (N., A., V.), where *s* is retained, and *o* is changed to *ū* (cf. *honor, -ōris*; *corpus, -ōris*). Thus comparatives appear to have two terminations.

b. The neuter singular *plūs* is used only as a noun. The genitive (rarely ablative) is used as an expression of value (cf. § 252. *a*). The dative is not found in classic use. The compound *complūrēs*, *several*, has sometimes neuter plural *complūria*.

All other comparatives are declined like *melior*.

4. Case-Forms.

87. In-adjectives of Consonant stems the following Case-forms are to be remarked:—

a. The Ablative singular commonly ends in *-i*; but adjectives used as nouns (as *superstes, survivor*) have *-e*. Participles in *-ns* used as *such* (especially in the ablative absolute, § 225), or as nouns, regularly have *-e*; but participles used as adjectives have regularly *-i*.

The following have uniformly *-i*: *āmēns, anceps, concors* (and other compounds of *cor*), *cōsors* (but as a substantive, *-e*), *dēgener, hebes, ingēns, inops, memor* (and its compounds), *pār* (in prose), *perpes, praeceps, praepe, teres*.

b. In the following, *-e* is the regular form of the ablative. *caules, compos, [†dēs], dives, hospes, pauper, particeps, princeps, superstes, sospes*; also in patrials (see § 54. 3) and stems in *āt-, it-, nt-, rt-*, when used as nouns, and sometimes when used as adjectives.

c. The genitive plural ends commonly in *-um*. The accusative plural regularly ends in *-as*, even in comparatives, which are less inclined to the *i*-declension.

d. The genitive plural ends in *-um* : —

1. Always in *dives*, *compos*, *inops*, *particeps*, *princeps*, *praepes*, *supplex*, and compounds of nouns which have *-um* : as, *quadru-pēs*, *bi-color*.

2. Sometimes, in poetry, in participles in *-ns* : as, *silentum concilium*, *a council of the silent shades* (Virg.).

3. In *vetus* (gen. *-ōris*), *pūbes* (gen. *-ōris*), *tiber* (gen. *-ōris*), which did not become *i*-stems, the endings *-e* (abl. sing.), *-a* (neut. nom. acc. plur.), *-um* (gen. plur.) are regular. (*Ūber* has also *-i* in abl.)

f 1. Several adjectives vary in declension : as, *gracilis* (*-us*), *hilaris* (*-us*), *inermis* (*-us*), *bicolor* (*-ōrus*).

2. A few are indeclinable : as, *damnās*, *frūgī* (really a dat. of service, see § 233), *nōquam* (originally an adverb).

3. Several are defective : as, (*a*) *expēs* (only nom.), *exlēx* (*exlēgem*) (only nom. and acc. sing.), *pernox* (*pernocte*) (only nom. and abl. sing.); (*b*) *primōris*, *sēminecī*, etc., which lack the nom. sing.

4. *Potis* is often used as an indeclinable adjective, but sometimes has *pote* in the neuter.

5 Special Uses.

88. The following special uses are to be observed : —

a. Many adjectives have acquired the meaning and construction of nouns : as, *amicus*, *a friend*; *aequālis*, *a contemporary*; *maiorēs*, *ancestors* (see p. 47, head-note, and § 188).

b. Many adjectives, from their signification, can be used only in the masculine and feminine. These may be called *adjectives of common gender*. Such are *adulēscēns*, *youthful*; [*īdēns*], *-idis*, *slothful*; *inops*, *-opis*, *poor*; *sōpes*, *-itis*, *safe*. Similarly, *senex*, *old man*, and *iuvenis*, *young man*, may be called *masculine adjectives*.

c. Many nouns may be used as adjectives. as, *pedes*, *a footman or on foot* (see § 188. d). Such are especially nouns in *-tor* (M.) and *-trix* (F.), denoting the *agent* (§ 162 a) : as, *victor exercitus*, *the conquering army*; *victrix causa*, *the winning cause*.

d. Certain forms of many adjectives are regularly used as adverbs. These are, the accusative and ablative of the neuter singular (§ 148. d, e) : as, *multum*, *multō*, *much*; the neuter singular of comparatives (see § 92) : as, *melius*, *better*; *levius*, *more lightly*.

NOTE. — Adverbs ending in *-ē* and *-ter* were also once case-forms : as, *cārē*, *dearly*; *levitē*, *lightly*; *foecissimē*, *most eagerly* (§ 148. d, f).

COMPARISON.

In Latin, as in English, there are three degrees of comparison: the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

1. Regular Comparison.

89. The Comparative is regularly formed by adding *-ior* (neuter *-ius*¹), the Superlative by adding *-issimus* (*-a*, *-um*) to the stem of the Positive, which loses its final vowel: as, —

cārus, dear (st. *cāro*-); *cārior*, dearer; *cārissimus*, dearest.
levis, light (st. *levi*-); *levior*, lighter; *levissimus*, lightest.
fēlix, happy (st. *fēlic*-); *fēlicior*, happier; *fēlicissimus*, happiest.
hebes, dull (st. *hebet*-); *hebetior*, duller; *hebetissimus*, dullest.

a. Adjectives in *-er* form the superlative by adding *-rimus* to the nominative. The comparative is regular: as, —

ācer, keen; *ācrior*, *ācerrimus*.
miser, wretched; *miserior*, *miserrimus*.

So *vetus* (gen. *veteris*) has superlative *veterrimus*, from the old form *veter*; and *mātūrus*, besides its regular superlative (*mātūris-simus*), has a rare form *mātūrrimus*.

For the comparative of *vetus*, *vetustior* (from *vetustus*) is used.

b. The following in *-lis* add *-limus* to the stem clipped of its vowel. *facilis* (st. *facili*-), *difficilis*, *similis*, *dissimilis*, *gracilis*, *humilis*. The comparative is regular: as, *facilis*, easy; *facilior*, *facillimus*.

c. Compounds in *-dicus* (*saying*), *-ficus* (*doing*), *-volus* (*willing*), take in their comparison the forms of corresponding participles in *-ns*, which were *asaciently* used as adjectives: as, —

maledicus, slanderous; *maledicentior*, *maledicentissimus*.
malevolus, spiteful; *malevolentior*, *malevolentissimus*.

d. Adjectives in *-us* preceded by any vowel but *u* rarely have forms of comparison, but are compared by means of the adverbs *magis*, *more*; *māximē*, *most*: as, —

idōneus, fit; *magis idōneus*, *māximē idōneus*.

NOTE. — But *pius* has *piissimus*.

¹ The comparative suffix (earlier *-ior*) is the same as the Greek *-ior*, or the Skr. *-yass*. That of the superlative (*-issimus*) is a double form; perhaps for *-iss-timus* (comparative and superlative), or possibly for *-iss-timiss* (two superlatives). The endings *-limus* and *-rimus* are formed by assimilation (§11, f) from *-timus* and *-rimus*. The comparative and superlative thus formed are *new stems* and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.

Most derivatives in *-iōus*, *-idus*, *-ālis*, *-āris*, *-ilis*, *-ūlus*, *-undus*, *-timus*, *-inus*, *-ivus*, *-ōrus*, with compounds (as *dēgener*, *inops*) are also compared by means of *magis* and *māximē*.

e. Participles when used as adjectives are regularly compared: as, —
patiēns, *patient*; *patientior*, *patientissimus*.
apertus, *open*; *apertior*, *apertissimus*.

f. A form of diminutive is made upon the stem of some comparatives: as, *grandius-culus*, *a little larger* (see § 164. *a*).

2. Irregular and Defective Comparison.

90. Several adjectives have in their comparison irregular forms: as, —

bonus, *melior*, *optimus*, *good*, *better*, *best*.

malus, *pōior*, *pessimus*, *bad*, *worse*, *worst*.

māgnus, *māior*, *māximus*, *great*, *greater*, *greatest*.

parvus, *minor*, *minimus*, *small*, *less*, *least*.

multus, *plūs* (N.) (§ 86. *b*), *plūrimus*, *much*, *more*, *most*.

multī, *plūrēs*, *plūrimī*, *many*, *more*, *most*.

nēquam (indecl.), *nēquior*, *nēquissimus*, *worthless* (cf. § 87. *f. 2*)

frūgi (indecl.), *frūgāior*, *frūgāissimus*, *useful*, *worthy* (cf. § 87. *f. 2*).

dexter, *dexterior*, *dextimus*, *on the right*, *handy*.

NOTE. — These irregularities arise from the use of different stems (cf. § 89. *c*).

91. Some Comparatives and Superlatives appear without a Positive: ¹ —

a. The following are formed from stems not used as adjectives: —

cis, *citrā* (adv. *on this side*): *citerior*, *citimus*, *hithēr*, *hithermost*.

in, *intrā* (prep. *in*, *within*): *interior*, *intimus*, *inner*, *inmost*.

prae, *prō* (prep. *before*): *prior*, *primus*, *former*, *first*.

prope (adv. *near*): *propior*, *proximus*, *nearer*, *next*.

ultrā (adv. *beyond*): *ulterior*, *ultimus*, *farther*, *farthest*.

b. Of the following the positive forms are rare, except when used as nouns (generally in the plural): —

¹ The forms in *-trā* and *-terus* were originally comparative (cf. *alter*), so that the comparatives in *-terior* are double comparatives. *Inferus* and *superus* are comparatives of a still more primitive form (cf. the English comp. in *-er*).

The superlatives in *-timus* (*-tumus*) are relics of old forms of comparison; those in *-mus* like *imius*, *summus*, *primus*, are still more primitive. Forms like *extrēmus* are superlatives of a comparative. In fact, comparison has always been treated with an accumulation of endings, as children say *furtherer* and *furtherest*.

exterus, exterior, extremus (extimus), outer, outmost.

[**Inferus**], **Inferior, infimus (imus), lower, lowest** (§ 82. d)

[**posterus**], **posterior, postrēmus (postumus), latter, last.**

[**superus**], **superior, suprēmus or summus, higher, highest.**

The plurals, **exterī, foreigners**; **Inferī, the gods below**; **posterī, posterity**; **superī, the heavenly gods**, are common

c. From **iuvēnis, youth, senex, old man** (cf. § 88. b), are formed the comparatives **iūnior, younger, senior, older**. For these, however, **minor nātū** and **māior nātū** are sometimes used (**nātū** being often omitted). The superlative is regularly expressed by **minimus** and **māximus**, with or without **nātū**.

NOTE.—In these phrases **nātū** is ablative of specification (see § 253).

a. In the following, one or other of the forms of comparison is wanting:

1. The positive is wanting in **dēterior, dēterrīmus**; **ōcior, ōcis-simus**; **potior, potissimus**.

2. The comparative is wanting in **bellus, caesius, falsus, fidus** (with its compounds), **inclutus** (or **inclitus**), **invictus, invitus, novus, pius, sacer, vafer, vetus** (§ 89. a).

3. The superlative is wanting in **āctuōsus, agrestis, alacer, aroā-nus, caecus, diftūrnus, exilis, ingēns, iſtūrnus, longinquus, obli-quus, optimus, prōclivis, propinquus, satur, sēgnis, sērus, supīnus, surdus, taciturnus, tempestivus, teres, vīolīnus**, and in some adjectives in **-ilis**.

NOTE.—Many adjectives—as **aureus, golden**—are from their meaning incapable of comparison; but each language has its own usage in this respect. Thus **niger, glossy black**, and **candidus, shining white**, are compared; but not **āter** or **albus**, meaning *absolute* dead black or white (except that Plautus once has **ātrior**).

3. Comparison of Adverbs.

92. The comparative of Adverbs is the neuter accusative of the comparative of the corresponding Adjective; the superlative is the Adverb in **-ē** formed regularly from the superlative of the Adjective: as, —

cārē, dearly (from **cārus, dear**): **cārīus, cārissimē**.

miserē (miseriter), wretchedly (from **miser, wretched**): **miserius, miserrimē**.

leviter (from **levis, light**): **levius, levissimē**.

audācter (audāciter) (from **audāx, bold**): **audācius, audācissimē**.

benē, well (from **bonus, good**): **melius, optimē**.

malē, ill (from **malus, bad**): **pīus, pessimē**.

The following are irregular or defective: —

diū, long (in time); *diūtius*, *diūtissimē*.
potius, rather; *potissimum*, first of all, in preference to all.
saepe, often; *saepius*, oftener, again; *saepissimē*.
satis, enough; *satius*, preferable.
secus, otherwise; *secius*, worse.
multum (*multō*), *magis*, *māximē*, much, more, most.
parum, not enough, *minus*, less, *minimē*, least.

4. Signification.

93. Besides their regular signification (as in English), the forms of comparison are used as follows: —

a. The Comparative denotes a *considerable* or *excessive* degree of a quality: as, *brevior*, rather short; *audācior*, too bold.

b. The Superlative (*of eminence*) often denotes a *very high* degree of a quality without implying a distinct comparison: as, *māximus numerus*, a very great number. With *quam*, *vel*, or *ūnus* it denotes the *highest possible* degree: as, *quam plurimī*, as many as possible; *quam māximē potest* (*māximē quam potest*), as much as can be, *virum ūnum doctissimum*, the one most learned man.

c. With *quisque*, each, the superlative has a peculiar signification. Thus the phrase *dītissimus quisque* means, *all the richest* (each richest man); *prīmus quisque*, *all the first* (each first man in his order).¹

Two superlatives with *quisque* imply a proportion: as, —

sapientissimus quisque aequissimō animō moritur (Cat. Maj. 83), *the wisest men die with the greatest equanimity*.

d. A high degree of a quality is also denoted by such adverbs as *admodum*, *valdē*, *very*, or by *per* or *prae* in composition (§ 170. c): as, *valdē malus*, *very bad* = *pessimus*; *permāgnus*, *very great*; *praesaltus*, *very high* (or *deep*).

e. A low degree of a quality is indicated by *sub* in composition: as, *substitutus*, *rather clownish*; or by *minus*, *not very*; *minimē*, *not at all*; *parum*, *not enough*; *nōn satis*, *not much*.

f. The comparative *māiōrēs* has the special signification of *ancestors* (cf. §§ 88. a, 91. c).

g. The comparative *minōrēs* often means *descendants*.

¹ As in taking things one by one off a pile, each thing is uppermost when you take it.

NUMERALS.

1. Cardinal and Ordinal.

94. Cardinal numbers are the regular series of numbers used in counting. Ordinal numbers¹ are adjectives derived from these to express order or place.

NOTE. — Cardinal numbers answer the question *quot? how many?* Ordinal numbers, the question *quotus? which in order? one of how many?*

These two series are as follows. —

CARDINAL.	ORDINAL.	ROMAN NUMERALS.
1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum, <i>one</i> .	prīmus, -a, -um, <i>first</i> .	I.
2. duo, duae, duo, <i>two</i> .	secundus (alter), <i>second</i> .	II.
3. trēs, tria, <i>three</i> .	tertius, <i>third</i> .	III.
4. quattuor (quātuor)	quārtus	IV.
5. quīnque	quīntus	V.
6. sex	sextus	VI.
7. septem	septimus	VII.
8. octō	octāvus	VIII.
9. novem	nōnus	IX.
10. decem	decimus	X.
11. ūndecim	ūndecimus	XI.
12. duodecim	duodecimus	XII.
13. tredecim (decem et trēs)	tertius decimus	XIII.
14. quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	XIV.
15. quīndecim	quīntus decimus	XV.
16. sēdecim	sextus decimus	XVI.
17. septendecim	septimus decimus	XVII.
18. duodēvigintī (octōdecim)	duodēvicēsimus	XVIII.
19. ūndēvigintī (novendecim)	ūndēvicēsimus	XIX.
20. vigintī	vicēsimus (vigēsimus)	XX.
21. vigintī ūnus	vicēsimus prīmus	XXI.
(or ūnus et vigintī)	(ūnus et vicēsimus, etc.)	

¹ The Ordinals (except *secundus, tertius, octāvus*) are formed by means of the same suffixes as superlatives. Thus *decimus* (compare the form *infimus*) may be regarded as the last of a series of ten; *prīmus* is a superlative of the stem of *prō*; the forms in *-tus* (*quārtus, quīntus, sextus*) may be compared with the corresponding Greek forms in *-tos*, and with *πρώτος*, superlative of *πρῶς*; *nōnus* is contracted from *novimus*; while the others have the regular superlative ending *-simus*. Of the exceptions, *secundus* is a participle of *sequor*; and *alter* is a comparative form (compare *-reptos* in Greek). The multiples of ten are compounds of the unit with a fragment of *decem*: as, *vigintī = dvi-gintī (duidecem-tī)*.

CARDINAL.	ORDINAL.	ROMAN NUMERALS
30. trīgintā	trīcēnsimus	XXX.
40. quadrāgintā	quadrāgēnsimus	XL.
50. quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēnsimus	L.
60. sexāgintā	sexāgēnsimus	LX.
70. septuāgintā	septuāgēnsimus	LXX.
80. octōgintā	octōgēnsimus	LXXX.
90. nōnāgintā	nōnāgēnsimus	XC.
100. centum	centēnsimus	C.
101. centum (et) ūnus, etc.	centēnsimus prīmus, etc.	CI.
200. ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēnsimus	CC.
300. trecentī	trecentēnsimus	CCC.
400. quadringentī	quadringentēnsimus	CCCC.
500. quīngentī	quīngentēnsimus	ID, or D.
600. sexcentī	sexcentēnsimus	DC.
700. septingentī	septingentēnsimus	DCC.
800. octingentī	octingentēnsimus	DCCC.
900. nōngentī	nōngentēnsimus	DCCCC.
1000. mille	millēnsimus	CID, or M.
5000. quīnque milia (millia)	quīnquēns millēnsimus	ICD.
10,000. decem milia (millia)	decīēns millēnsimus	CCICD.
100,000. centum milia (millia)	centīēns millēnsimus	CCCICD.

NOTE.—The forms in *-ēnsimus* are often written without the *n*: as, *vicēsimus*, etc.

a. For the inflection of *ūnus*, see § 83. It often has the meaning of *same* or *only*. The plural is used in this sense; but also, as a simple numeral, to agree with a plural noun of a singular meaning: as, *ūna castra*, *one camp* (cf. § 95. *b*).

The plural occurs also in the phrase *ūni et alteri*, *one party and the other* (the ones and the others).

b. *Duo*,¹ *two*, and *ambo*, *both*, are thus declined:—

NOM.	duo	duae	duo
GEN.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
DAT.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
ACC.	duōs (duo)	duās	duo
ABL.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus

c. *Tres*, *tria*, *three*, is an *i*-stem, and is regularly declined like the plural of *levis* (see § 84). The other cardinal numbers, up to *centum* (100), are indeclinable.

¹ The form in *-o* is a remnant of the *dual number*, which was lost in Latin, but is found in cognate languages.

The forms *octōdecim*, *novendecim* are rare, *duodēviginti*, *undēviginti* being used instead. Similar forms for higher numbers occasionally found: as, *duodēquadrāginti*, *thirty-eight*; *tum*, *ninety-nine*.

d. The hundreds, up to 1000, are o-stems, and are regularly declined like the plural of *bonus*.

e. *Mille*, a *thousand*, is in the singular an indeclinable adjective. In the plural (*mīlia* or *millia*, *thousands*), it is used as a neuter noun, with a genitive plural. Thus, *cum mille hominibus*, *with a thousand men*; but *cum duobus milibus hominum*, *with two thousand men*.¹

NOTE.—The singular *mille* is sometimes found as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, *mille hominum*, *misit*; but in the other cases only in connection with the same case of *mīlia*: as, *cum octo milibus peditum*, *mille equitum*, *with eight thousand foot and a thousand horse*.

f. The ordinals are o-stems, and are declined like *bonus*.

2. Distributives.

95. Distributive Numerals are declined like the plural of *bonus*.

NOTE.—These answer to the interrogative *quotēni*? *how many of each*, or *at a time*? as,—

1. <i>singulī</i> , <i>one by one</i> .	18. <i>octōnī dēni</i> or	100. <i>centēni</i>
2. <i>binī</i> , <i>two-and-two</i> .	<i>duodēvicēni</i>	200. <i>ducentī</i>
3. <i>ternī</i> , <i>trīnī</i>	19. <i>novēnī dēni</i> or	300. <i>trecentī</i>
4. <i>quaternī</i>	<i>undēvicēni</i>	400. <i>quadringēni</i>
5. <i>quīnī</i>	20. <i>vicēni</i>	500. <i>quīngēni</i>
6. <i>sēnī</i>	21. <i>vicēnī singulī</i> , etc.	600. <i>sēscēni</i>
7. <i>septēnī</i>	30. <i>trīcentī</i>	700. <i>septingēni</i>
8. <i>octōnī</i>	40. <i>quadrāgēni</i>	800. <i>octingēni</i>
9. <i>novēnī</i>	50. <i>quīnquāgēni</i>	900. <i>nōngēni</i>
10. <i>dēni</i>	60. <i>sexāgēni</i>	1000. <i>millēni</i>
11. <i>undēnī</i>	70. <i>septuāgēni</i>	2000. <i>binā milia</i>
12. <i>duodēni</i>	80. <i>octōgēni</i>	10,000. <i>dēna milia</i>
13. <i>ternī dēni</i> , etc.	90. <i>nōnāgēni</i>	100,000. <i>centēna milia</i>

Distributives are used as follows:—

a. In the sense of *so many apiece* or *on each side*: as, *singula singula*, *one apiece* (one each to each one); *agri septēna iūgera plēbi divisa sunt*, i.e. *seven jugera to each citizen* (seven jugera each), etc.

¹ Or, in poetry, *cum bis mille hominibus*, *with twice a thousand men*.

b. Instead of Cardinals, to express simple number, when a noun is plural in form but singular in meaning: as, *bīna castra*, *two camps* (*duo castra* would mean *two forts*). But the plural *trīni* is used (instead of *trīnguli*), to signify *one* (see § 94. *a*), and *trīni* (not *terni*) for *three*.

c. In multiplication: as, *bis bīna*, *twice two*; *ter septēnis diēbus*, *in thrice seven days*.

d. By the poets instead of cardinal numbers, particularly where *pairs* or *sets* are spoken of: as, *bīna hastilia*, *two shafts* (two in a set).

3. Numeral Adverbs.

96. The Numeral Adverbs answer the question *quotiens* (*quoties*), *how many times, how often*.

1. <i>semel</i> , <i>once</i> .	12. <i>duodeciēns</i>	40. <i>quadrāgiēns</i>
2. <i>bis</i> , <i>twice</i> .	13. <i>terdeciēns</i>	50. <i>quīnquāgiēns</i>
3. <i>ter</i> , <i>thrice</i> .	14. <i>quaterdeciēns</i>	60. <i>sexāgiēns</i>
4. <i>quater</i>	15. <i>quīndeciēns</i>	70. <i>septuāgiēns</i>
5. <i>quīnquiēns</i> (-ēs)	16. <i>sēdeciēns</i>	80. <i>octōgiēns</i>
6. <i>sexiēns</i> (-ēs)	17. <i>septiēndeciēns</i>	90. <i>nōnāgiēns</i>
7. <i>septiēns</i> (-ēs)	18. <i>duodēviciēns</i>	100. <i>centiēns</i>
8. <i>octiēns</i>	19. <i>ūndēviciēns</i>	200. <i>ducentiēns</i>
9. <i>noviēns</i>	20. <i>viciēns</i>	300. <i>trecentiēns</i>
10. <i>deciēns</i>	21. <i>semel et viciēns</i> , <i>etc.</i>	1000. <i>milliēns</i>
11. <i>ūndeciēns</i>	30. <i>trīciēns</i>	10,000. <i>deciēns milliēns</i>

NOTE.—They are used, in combination with *mille*, to express the higher numbers: as, *ter et trīciēns* (*centēna millia*) *sēstertium*, 3,300,000 *sesterces*. Forms in *-ns* are often written without the *n*: as, *quīnquiēs*.

4. Other Numerals.

97. The adjectives *simplex*, *single*, *duplex*, *double*, *triplex*, *quadruplex*, *quīnquplex*, *septemplex*, *decemplex*, *centuplex*, *sexquplex* ($1\frac{1}{2}$), *multi-plex*, *manifold*, are called *Multiplicatives*.

a. PROPORTIONALS are: *duplus*, *tripplus*, etc., *twice as great*, etc.

b. TEMPORALS: *bīmus*, *trīmus*, *of two or three years' age*; *biennis*, *triennis*, *lasting two or three years*; *bimēstris*, *trimēstris*, *of two or three months*; *biduum*, *biennium*, *a period of two days or years*.

c. PARTITIVES: *binārius*, *ternārius*, *of two or three parts*.

d. FRACTIONS: *dimidia pars* (*dimidium*), *a half*; *tertia pars*, *a third*.

NOTE.—But fractions are regularly expressed by special words derived from *as* (*a pound*) and the numerals: as, *triēns*, *a third*; *bēs*, *two-thirds*.

e. Other derivatives are: *ūniō*, *unity*; *biniō*, *the two* (of dice); *primānus*, *of the first legion*; *primārius*, *of the first rank*; *dēnārius*, *a sum of 10 asses*; *bīnus* (distributive), *double*, etc.

CHAPTER V.—Pronouns.

98. Pronouns have special forms of declension.

NOTE.—These special forms are, in general, survivals of a more primitive form of declension than that of nouns.

1. Personal Pronouns.

The Personal pronouns of the *first person* are *ego, I, nōs, we*; of the *second person*, *tū, thou, vōs, ye or you*.

FIRST PERSON.

NOM.	ego, I;	nōs, we;
GEN.	meī, of me;	nostrūm (trī), of us;
DAT.	mihi (mī), to me;	nōbīs, to us;
ACC.	mē, me;	nōs, us;
VOC.	—	—
ABL.	mē, by me;	nōbīs, by us.

SECOND PERSON.

NOM.	tū, thou;	vōs, ye or you;
GEN.	tui, you;	vostrūm, vostri; vestrūm (trī)
DAT.	tibi	vōbīs
ACC.	tē	vōs
VOC.	tū	vōs
ABL.	tē	vōbīs

a. The personal pronouns of the *third person*—*he, she, it, they*—are wanting in Latin, a demonstrative being sometimes used (see § 101).

b. The plural *nōs* is often used for the singular *ego*; the plural *vōs* never for the singular *tū*.

c. Old forms are genitive, *mī, tīs*; accusative and ablative *mēd, tēd* (cf. § 70. *h*).

2. Reflexive Pronouns.

Reflexive pronouns are used in the Oblique Cases to refer to the Subject of the sentence or clause (see § 196).

a. In the first and second persons the oblique cases of the Personal pronouns are used as Reflexives: as, *mē contuli, I went* (I betook myself); *tē laudās, you praise yourself*; *nōbīs persuādēmus, we persuade ourselves*.

b. The reflexive pronoun of the Third Person has a special form used only in this sense, the same for both singular and plural. It is thus declined: —

GEN.	sui, of himself, herself, themselves.
DAT.	sibi, to himself, herself, themselves.
ACC.	se (se), himself, herself, themselves.
ABL.	se (se), by himself, herself, themselves.

Si (genitive) and **se** (accusative and ablative) are ancient.

3. Possessive Pronouns.

The Possessive pronouns are, for the first person: **meus**, *my*, **noster**, *our*; for the second person: **tuus**, *thy*, *your*, **voster**, **vester**, *your*; for the third person: **suus**, *his*, *her*, *their*. These are declined like adjectives of the first and second declensions (see §§ 81, 82). But **meus** has regularly **mi** (rarely **meus**) in the vocative singular masculine.

NOTE. — **Suus** is only reflexive, referring to the subject. For a possessive pronoun of the third person not referring to the subject, the genitive of a demonstrative must be used. Thus, **patrem suum occidit**, *he killed his (own) father*; but **patrem eius occidit**, *he killed his (somebody else's) father*.

99. In the meaning and use of the Personal, Reflexive, and Possessive pronouns it is to be observed that —

a. To express Possession and similar ideas the possessive pronouns must be used, not the genitive of the personal or reflexive pronouns (cf. § 197. a). Thus, *my father* is **pater meus**, never **pater mei**.

b. The forms **nostrum**, **vostrum**, etc., are used *partitively*: as, —

quisque nostrum, *each one of us*; so
vostri omnium, *of all of you*.

NOTE. — The forms of the genitive of the personal pronouns are really the genitives of the possessives: **mei**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostri**, **vostri**, gen. sing. neuter; **nostrum**, **vostrum**, gen. plu. masc. or neuter contracted. So in early and later Latin we find **una vestrum**, *one of you (women)*.

c. The genitives **mei**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostri**, **vostri**, are chiefly used *objectively* (see § 213. N.): as, —

memor es nostri, *be mindful of us (me)*.
mi tui pudet, *I am ashamed of you*.

d. The reciprocals *one another* and *each other* are expressed by *inter se* or *alter . . . alterum*: as, —

alter alterius ova frangit, they break each other's eggs (one . . . of the other).

inter se amant, they love one another (they love among themselves).

e. The preposition *cum*, *with*, is joined enclitically with the ablative of the personal and reflexive pronouns: as, *tūcum loquitur, he talks with you*.

f. To the personal and reflexive (and sometimes to the possessive) pronouns certain enclitics are joined for emphasis: *-met* to all except *tū* (nom.); *-te* to *tū* (*tūte*, also *tūtimet*); *-pte* to the ablative singular of the adjectives, and in early Latin to the others: as, —

vōsmetipsōs prōditis, you betray your own very selves.

suōpte pondere, by its own weight.

4. Demonstrative Pronouns.

100. The Demonstrative pronouns are *hic, this; is, ille, iste, that*; with the Intensive *ipse, self*, and *idem, same*.¹

a. *Ille* is a later form of *ollus* (*olle*), which is sometimes used by the poets; a genitive singular in *-ī, -ae, -ī*, occurs in *ille* and *iste*.

b. *Iste* is sometimes found in early writers in the form *ste*, etc., with the entire loss of the first syllable; and the first syllable of *ipse* and *ille* is very often used as short in early poetry.

c. *Ipse* is compounded of *is* and *-pse* (for *-pte*, from the same root as *potis*) (cf. § 99. f), meaning *self*. The former part was originally declined, as in *reapse* (for *rē eapse*), *in fact*. An old form *ip̄us* occurs.

Idem is the demonstrative *is* with the affix *-dem*.

¹ These demonstratives are combinations of *o-* and *i-* stems, which are not clearly distinguishable. *Hic* is a compound of the stem *ho-* with the demonstrative enclitic *-ce*, which appears *i-* full in early Latin (*hice*), and when followed by the enclitic *-ne* (*hicine*). In most of the cases *-ce* is shortened to *-e*, and in many lost; but it is often appended for emphasis to forms that do not regularly retain it (as *hītusce*). In early Latin *-e* alone is retained in some of these (*hōruncē*). *Ille* and *iste* are sometimes found with the same enclitic: *illce, illece, illce*; also *illce* (acc. or abl.: § 101. p. 67).

101. The demonstratives are used either *with nouns* as Adjectives, or *alone* as Pronouns. From their signification they cannot (except *ipse*) have a vocative. They are thus declined :—

<i>hic, this.</i>			<i>is, that.</i>		
Sing.	M.	F.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	hic	haec	hic	is	ea
GEN.	huius	huius	huius	huius	huius
DAT.	huic	huic	huic	ei	ei
ACC.	hunc	hanc	hoc	eum	eam
ABL.	hoc	hanc	hoc	eo	ea
Plur.					
NOM.	hi	hae	haec	I (ei)	eae
GEN.	horum	harum	horum	eorum	eorum
DAT.	his	his	his	eis or is	
ACC.	hos	has	haec	eos	eas
ABL.	his	his	his	eis or is	
<i>ille, that.</i>			<i>ipse, self.</i>		
Sing.					
NOM.	ille	illa	illud	ipse	ipsa
GEN.	illius	illius	illius	ipsius	ipsius
DAT.	illi	illi	illi	ipsi	ipsi
ACC.	illum	illam	illud	ipsum	ipsam
VOC.				ipse	ipsa
ABL.	illo	illa	illo	ipso	ipsa
Plur.					
NOM.	illi	illae	illa	ipsi	ipsae
GEN.	illorum	illarum	illorum	ipsorum	ipsarum
DAT.	illis	illis	illis	ipsis	ipsis
ACC.	illos	illas	illa	ipsos	ipsas
VOC.	—	—	—	ipsi	ipsae
ABL.	illis	illis	illis	ipsis	ipsis

Idem, the same.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
N.	Idem	eodem	Idem	Idem (ei)	eodem
G.	eiusdem	eiusdem	eiusdem	eorumdem	eorumdem
D.	eisdem	eisdem	eisdem	eisdem or isdem	
AC.	eundem	eundem	Idem	eodam	eadem
AB.	eodem	eodem	eodem	eodem or isdem	

iste, ista, istud, that (yonder), is declined like *ille*.

Ille and *iste* are combined with the demonstrative *-eo*. Thus: —

Sing.	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
NOM.	<i>illūc</i>	<i>illāc</i>	<i>illūc</i> (<i>illūo</i>)	<i>istūc</i>	<i>istāc</i>	<i>istūc</i> (<i>istūo</i>)
ACC.	<i>illūo</i>	<i>illāo</i>	<i>illūc</i> (<i>illūc</i>)	<i>istūo</i>	<i>istāo</i>	<i>istūc</i> (<i>istūc</i>)
ABL.	<i>illūc</i>	<i>illāc</i>	<i>illūc</i>	<i>istūc</i>	<i>istāc</i>	<i>istūc</i>
Plur.						
N., ACC.	—	—	<i>illāc</i>	—	—	<i>istāc</i>

a. For the dative and ablative plural of *hic* the old form *hibus* is sometimes found; *haec* occurs (rarely) for *hae*.

b. The normal forms *illī*, *istī* (gen.), and *illae*, *istae* (dat.), are found; also the nominative plural *istaece*, *illaece* (for *istae*, *illae*).

c. The plural forms *ī*, *īa*, *īdem*, *īdem*, are often written *īī*, *īīa*, etc. Obsolete forms are *eae* (dat. for *eī*), and *eābus* or *ībus* (dat. plur. for *īī*). For *eī* are found also *ēī* and *ēī*.

d. By composition with *ecce* or *ēn*, *behold!* are formed *ecceum*, *eccam*, *ecceōs*, *eccās*; *eccillum*, *ēllum*, *ēllam*, *ēllōs*, *ēllās*; *eccistam*. These forms are dramatic and colloquial.

e. The combinations *hūiusmodī* (*hūiuscemodī*), *ēiusmodī*, etc., are used as indeclinable adjectives, equivalent to *tālis*, *such*: as, *rē ēiusmodī*, *such a thing* (a thing of that sort: compare § 215).

102. In the use of these demonstratives it is to be observed that —

a. *Hic* is used of what is *near the speaker* (in time, place, thought, or on the written page). It is hence called the *demonstrative of the first person*. "It is sometimes used of the speaker himself; sometimes for "the latter" of two persons or things mentioned in speech or writing; more rarely for "the former," when that, though more remote *on the written page*, is nearer the speaker in *time, place, or thought*."

b. *Ille* is used of what is *remote* (in time, etc.); and is hence called the *demonstrative of the third person*. It is sometimes used to mean "the former" (see under *hic*, a); also (usually following its noun) of what is *famous* or *well-known*; often (especially the neuter *illud*) to mean "the following."

¹ The intensive *-eo* is also found in numerous combinations: as, *hūiusce*, *hūiusce*, *hūiusce*, *hūiusce*, *hūiusce* (cf. n., p. 65), *illūiusce*, *illūiusce*; also with the interrogative *-ne*, in *hūiusce*, *hūiusce*, *illūiusce*, *illūiusce*, etc. The intensive *-eo* is found in the forms *ecce* (nom.), *ecce*, *ecce*, *ecce*, *ecce* (abl.).

c. Iste is used of what is *between the two others* in remoteness, often in allusion to the person addressed,—hence called the *demonstrative of the second person*. It especially refers to one's opponent (in court, etc.), and frequently implies a kind of contempt.

d. Is is a weaker demonstrative than the others and does not denote any special object, but refers to one just mentioned, or to be afterwards explained by a relative. It is used oftener than the others as a personal pronoun (see § 98. 1. *a*); and is often merely a correlative to the relative *qui*, as, *eum quem, one whom; eum cōsulem qui nōn dubitet* (Cic.), *a consul who will not hesitate*.

e. Ipse may be used with a personal pronoun of either person, as *ipsi (nōsmetipsi), we ourselves*; or independently (the verb containing the pronoun, or the context implying it), as *ipsi adestis, you are yourselves present*; or with a noun, as *ipsi fontēs* (Virg.), *the very fountains*.

NOTE.—In English, the pronouns *himself*, etc., are used both intensively (as, *he will come himself*) and reflexively (as, *he will kill himself*). In Latin the former would be translated by *ipse*; the latter, by *sē* or *sēsē*.

f. The pronouns hic, ille, and is are used to point in either direction, back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned. The neuter forms are especially used to refer to a clause, phrase, or idea: as, *est illud quidem vel maximum animi videre* (Tuscul. i. 52), *that is in truth a very great thing to see the soul*.

5. Relative Pronouns.

103. The relative pronoun *qui, who, which*, is thus declined:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
NOM.	<i>qui</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>qui</i>	<i>quae</i> <i>quae</i>
GEN.	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>quōrum</i>	<i>quārum</i> <i>quōrum</i>
DAT.	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i> <i>quibus</i>
ACC.	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quod</i>	<i>quōs</i>	<i>quās</i> <i>quae</i>
ABL.	<i>quō</i>	<i>quā</i>	<i>quō</i>	<i>quibus</i>	<i>quibus</i> <i>quibus</i>

6. Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns.

104. The interrogative or indefinite *quis (quī), who? which? any*, is declined in the Singular as follows:—

NOM.	<i>quis (quī)</i>	<i>quae</i>	<i>quid (quod)</i>
GEN.	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>	<i>cūius</i>
DAT.	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>	<i>cui</i>
ACC.	<i>quem</i>	<i>quam</i>	<i>quid (quod)</i>
ABL.	<i>quō</i>	<i>quā</i>	<i>quō</i>

§ 104.] *Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.*

The Plural is the same as that of the Relative. The singular *quis* is rare as an indefinite (see § 105. d).

NOTE. — The Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns are originally of the same Stem, and the forms for the most part are the same (compare § 103 with § 104). The stem has two forms, *quo-* and *qui-*.¹ The interrogative sense is doubtless the original one.

CASE-FORMS. — *a.* The relative has always *qui*, *quae*, *quod*. The interrogative and indefinite have *quis*, *quae*, *quid*, *substantive*, and *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, *adjective*: as, *quis vocat?* *who calls?* *quid vidēs?* *what do you see?* *qui homō vocat?* *what man calls?* *quod templum vidēs?* *what temple do you see?*

NOTE. — But *qui* is often used without any apparent adjective force, and *quis* is very common as an adjective, especially with words denoting a person: as, *qui nōminat mē?* *who calls my name?* *quis diēs fuit?* *what day was it?* *quis homō?* *what man?* but often *qui homō?* *what sort of a man?* *nesciō qui sis*, *I know not who you are.*

b. Old forms for the genitive and dative are *quōius*, *quōi*.

c. The form *qui* is used for the ablative of both numbers and all genders; but especially as an adverb (*how, by which way, in any way*), and in the combination *quicum*, *with whom*, as an interrogative or an indefinite relative.

d. A nominative plural *quēs* (stem *qui-*) is found in early Latin. The dative and ablative *quīs* (stem *quo-*) is old, but not infrequent.

e. The preposition *cum* is joined enclitically to all forms of the ablative, as with the personal pronouns (§ 99. *e*): as, *quōcum*, *quicum*, *quibuscum*.

NOTE. — But occasionally *cum* precedes as with other words: as, *cum quō* (Juv. 4. 9).

f. The accusative form *quom*, *cum* (stem *quo-*) is used only as a conjunctive adverb, meaning *when* or *since*.

g. The adjective *uter* is used as an interrogative and indefinite relative. It is declined as an adjective of three terminations (see § 83).

NOTE. — This word is probably the comparative of the stem *quo-*; cf. *inter* (p. 56, foot-note), and Greek *πρότερος*.

105. The pronouns *quis* and *qui* appear in various combinations.

¹ From *qui-* are formed *quis*, *quid*, *quem*, *quibus*, *qui* (adj.); while *qui*, *quae* (nom.), are probably lengthened forms of *quō-*, *quā-* (see § 92, foot-note 1), made by the addition of the demonstrative particle *i*.

a. The adverb *-cumque* (*-cunque*) (cf. *quisque*) added to the relative makes an indefinite relative, which is declined like the simple word: as, *quiscumque*, *quascumque*, *quodcumque*, *whoever*, *whatever*; *otiuscunque*, etc.

NOTE.—This suffix, with the same meaning, may be used with any relative: as, *quallsomque*, *of whatever sort*; *quandocumque* (also rarely *quandōque*), *whenever*; *ubicumque*, *wherever*.

b. The interrogative form doubled makes an indefinite relative: as, *quisquis*, *whoever* (so *utut*, *however*, *ubiubi*, *wherever*). Of *quisquis* both parts are declined, but the feminine is wanting in classic use. thus—

NOM.	quisquis (quisquis)	quidquid (quidquid)
ACC.	quemquem	quidquid (quidquid)
ABL.	quodquod quāquā	quodquod
PROPR. NOM.	quisquis	
D., ABL.	quibusquibus	

NOTE.—This compound is rare, except in the forms *quisquis*, *quidquid*, and *quodquod*. The case-form *quamquam* is used only as a conjunction, meaning *although* (strictly *however*). *Quiquis* (nom. sing.) is an early and *quāquā* a late form. The grammarians give also a regular genitive and dative. *Cuiusmodi* is used like a genitive, but is probably locative.

c. Indefinite compounds are the following: *quidam*, *a, a certain*; *quispiam*, *any*; *quisvis*, *quilibet*, *any you please*; *quisquam*, *any at all*. Of these the former part is declined like *quis* and *qui*, but they all have both *quod* (adjective) and *quid* (substantive) in the neuter.

d. The indefinite *quis*, otherwise rare, is found in the compounds *aliquis*, *some one*, and the combinations *si quis*, *if any*; *nō quis*, *lest any, that none*; *ecquis*, *num quis*, *whether any*, and a few others.

These are declined like *quis*, but have generally *quā* instead of *quae*, except in the nominative plural feminine. The forms *aliquae*, *ecquae*, nominative singular feminine, occur rarely.

NOTE.—The compounds *quispiam*, *aliquis*, and *quisquam* are often used instead of *quis* with *si*, *nō*, and *num*, and are rather more emphatic, as *si quis*, *if any one*, *si aliquis*, *if some one*, *si quisquam*, *if any one (ever, cf. d.)*.

These compounds are thus declined:—

Sing.	<i>aliquis, some.</i>		
NOM.	<i>aliquis</i> (<i>aliquis</i>)	<i>aliqua</i>	<i>aliquid</i> (<i>aliquid</i>)
GEN.		<i>alicuius</i>	
DAT.		<i>alicui</i>	
ACC.	<i>aliquem</i>	<i>aliquam</i>	<i>aliquid</i> (<i>aliquid</i>)
ABL.	<i>aliquo</i>	<i>aliqua</i>	<i>aliquo</i>

PLUR.			
NOM.	aliqui	aliquae	aliqua
GEN.	aliquorum	aliquarum	aliquorum
DAT.		aliquibus	
ACC.	aliquos	aliquas	aliqua
ABL.		aliquibus	

The forms in *-qui* and *-quod* are adjective; those in *quis* and *quid*, substantive: as, *aliquod bonum*, *some good thing*; but *aliquid boni*, *something good* (something of good).

NOTE. — *Aliquis* is compounded with *ali-*, old stem of *alius* (p. 49, foot-note). But the meaning *other* usually disappears.

e. The enclitic particle *que* added to the interrogative gives a universal: as, *quisque*, *every one*, *uterque*, *either* of two, or *both*. In this combination *quis* is regularly declined.

In the compound *unusquisque*, *every single one*, both parts are declined, and they are sometimes separated by other words.

Quotus quisque has the signification *how many, pray?* often in a disparaging sense.

f. The relative and interrogative have rarely a possessive adjective *cuius* (*-a, -um*), *whose*; and a patial *cuius* (*cuius*), *of what country*.

g. *Quantus*, *how great*, *qualis*, *of what sort*, are derivative adjectives from the same stem as the interrogative. They are used as interrogative or relative, corresponding to the demonstratives *tantus*, *talis* (§ 106).

h. *Quisquam*, with *ullus*, *any*, *unquam*, *ever*, *usquam*, *anywhere*, are chiefly used in negative sentences, or where there is an implied negative, as in interrogative or conditional sentences, or after *quam*, *than*; *sine*, *without*; *vix*, *scarcely*: as, *nequisquam ex agmine tantō*, *and nobody from that great throng*; *si quisquam est timidus*, *is ego sum*, *if any one is timorous, I am the man*; *sine ullō dominō*, *without any master*; *an quisquam usquam gentium est aequus miser?* *why? is there anybody anywhere in the world so wretched?*

i. *Quisnam* is emphatic: *pray, who?* *ecquis* and *numquis* are compounded from the indefinite particle *en* and the interrogative *num*; they mean not *who*, but any in a question: as, *ecquis nō videt?* *does any one see us?* *num quid hōc dubitās*, *do you at all doubt this?*

7. Correlatives.

106. Many pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and adverbs have corresponding *demonstrative*, *relative*, *interrogative*, and *indefinite* forms. Such parallel forms are called **CORRELATIVES**. They are shown in the following table:—

DEMONSTR.	RELATIVE.	INTERROG.	INDEF. RELATIVE.	INDEF.
<i>is, that</i>	<i>qui, who</i>	<i>quis? who?</i>	<i>quisquis, whoever</i>	<i>aliquis, some one</i>
<i>tantus, so great</i>	<i>quantus</i>	<i>quantus?</i>	<i>(quantuscumque)</i>	<i>aliquantus</i>
<i>tālis, such</i>	<i>quālis</i>	<i>quālis?</i>	<i>(quālisumque)</i>	—
<i>ibi, there</i>	<i>ubi</i>	<i>ubi?</i>	<i>ubiubi</i>	<i>alicubi</i>
<i>eō, thither</i>	<i>quō</i>	<i>quō?</i>	<i>quōquō</i>	<i>aliquō</i>
<i>eā, that way</i>	<i>quā</i>	<i>quā?</i>	<i>quāquā</i>	<i>aliquā</i>
<i>inde, thence</i>	<i>unde</i>	<i>unde?</i>	<i>(undecumque)</i>	<i>alicunde</i>
<i>tum, then</i>	<i>quom, cum</i>	<i>quandō?</i>	<i>(cumcumque)</i>	<i>aliquandō</i>
<i>tōt, so many</i>	<i>quot</i>	<i>quot?</i>	<i>quotquot</i>	<i>aliquot</i>
<i>totiēs, so often</i>	<i>quotiēs</i>	<i>quotiēs?</i>	<i>(quotiēscumque)</i>	<i>aliquotiēs</i>

a. The forms *tot* (originally *toti*), *so many*, *quot*, *how (as) many*, *aliquot*, *several*, *totidem*, *as many*, are indeclinable, and may take any gender or case: as, *per tot annōs*, *tot proeliis*, *tot imperatōrēs* (Cic.), *so many commanders, for so many years, in so many battles*.

b. The relative word in a pair of correlatives is often to be rendered simply *as*: thus, *tantum argentī quantum aeris*, *as much (of) silver as (of) copper*.

c. A frequent form of correlative is found in the ablative *quō* or *quantō*, *by how much*; *eō* or *tantō*, *by so much*, used with comparatives (rendered in English *the . . . the*)¹: as, —

quō magis cōnāris, eō longius progrēderis, *the more you try, the farther on you get* (by which the more, etc., by that the farther).

107. Certain relative and demonstrative adverbs are used correlatively as conjunctions: as, —

ut (rel.) . . . *ita*, *sic* (dem.), *as (while) . . . so (yet)*.

tam (dem.) . . . *quam* (rel.), *so (as) . . . as*.

cum (rel.) . . . *tum* (dem.), *both . . . and; while . . . so also; not only . . . but also*.

Compare *et . . . et*, *both . . . and*; *aut (vel) . . . aut (vel)*, *either . . . or*; *sive (seu) . . . sive*; *utrum . . . an*, *whether . . . or*.

¹ In this phrase *the* is not the definite article but a pronominal adverb, being the Anglo-Saxon *þā*, the instrumental case of the pronoun *þat*, *that*. This pronoun is used both as demonstrative and relative. Thus *the . . . the* corresponds exactly to *quō . . . eō*.

CHAPTER VI. — *Verbs.*

I. — INFLECTION OF THE VERB

1. Voice, Mood, Tense.

108. The inflection of the Verb denotes Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

- a.* The VOICES are two: Active and Passive.
- b.* The MOODS are four: Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive.¹
- c.* The TENSES are six, viz.:—
 1. For continued action, Present, Imperfect, Future.
 2. For completed action, Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.
- d.* PERSON and NUMBER. — There are separate terminations for each of the three PERSONS, — first, second, and third, — both in the singular and in the plural.

2. Noun and Adjective Forms.

109. The following Noun and Adjective forms are also included in the inflection of the Latin Verb:—

- a.* Four PARTICIPLES,² viz.:—

Active: the Present and Future Participles
Passive: the Perfect Participle and the Gerundive.³
- b.* The GERUND: this is in form a neuter noun of the second declension, used only in the oblique cases of the singular. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive (see § 114. note).
- c.* The SUPINE: see §§ 71. *a* and 114. *b*.

3. Defective Forms.

110. Special forms for some of the tenses are wanting in certain parts of the verb:—

¹ The Infinitive is strictly a case of an abstract noun, expressing the action of the verb (p. 120. *f*); but it plays so important a part in verbal construction, that it is properly treated as a part of the verb.

² The Participles are Adjectives in inflection and meaning (see § 25. *d*), but have the power of Verbs in construction and in distinguishing time.

³ The Gerundive is also used as an adjective, indicating *necessity* or *duty* (see § 113. *d*). In late use it became a Future Passive Participle.

a. The Subjunctive mood wants the Future and the Future Perfect. In most constructions, these tenses are supplied without ambiguity by the Present (or Imperfect) and the Perfect (or Pluperfect); for originally all tenses of the subjunctive referred to future time. In some constructions the want is supplied by the future participle with the proper tense of the verb signifying TO BE: as, *cum scōtūrus sit, since he will follow.*

b. In the Passive voice in all moods the tenses of completed action (Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect) are supplied by the Perfect Participle with the present, imperfect, and future of the verb signifying TO BE: as, *occisus est, he was killed.*

c. In the Imperative mood, the only tenses are the Present and the Future.

d. In the Infinitive mood the Present (active and passive) and the Perfect (active) only are formed by inflection. A Future in the active voice is formed by the Future Participle with the infinitive signifying TO BE: as, *amātūrus esse, to be going to love*; in the passive, by the Former Supine with *IRI* (infin. pass. of *IRE, to go*): as, *amātum IRI, to be about to be loved.* For the Perfect passive, see *b* above.

II.—SIGNIFICATION OF THE FORMS OF THE VERB.

1. Voices.

111. The Active and Passive Voices in Latin generally correspond to the active and passive in English; but—

a. The passive voice often has a Reflexive meaning: as, *induitur vestem, he puts on his (own) clothes*; *Turnus vertitur, Turnus turns (himself).*

NOTE.—This use corresponds very nearly to the Greek Middle voice, and is doubtless a survival of the original meaning of the passive (§ 118. note).

b. Many verbs are used only in the passive form, but with an active or reflexive meaning. These are called DEPONENTS (*dēpōnentia*), i.e., verbs which have laid aside (*dēpōnere*) the active form and the passive meaning (see § 135).

2. Moods.

112. The MOODS of the Latin verb are used as follows:

a. The Indicative Mood is used for *direct assertions and interrogations*: as, — *valesne? valeō, are you well? I am well*; and also in some other idiomatic forms of predication.

b. The Subjunctive Mood has many idiomatic uses, as in *commands*, *conditions*, and various *dependent clauses*. It is frequently translated by the English Indicative; sometimes by means of the auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *would*, *should*; sometimes by the (rare) Subjunctive; sometimes by the Infinitive; and often by the Imperative, especially in *prohibitions*. Thus—

eāmus, let us go.

cum vēnisset, when he had come.

adsum ut videam, I am here to see (that I may see).

tū nē quaesieris, do not thou inquire.

nēmō est qui ita existimet, there is no one who thinks so.

beātus sis, may you be blessed.

nē abeat, let him not depart.

quid morer, why should I delay?

eunt qui putent, there are some who think.

imperat ut scribam, he orders me to write (that I write).

nesciō quid scribam, I know not what to write.

licet eas, you may go (it is permitted that you go).

cave cadās, don't fall.

vereor nē eat, I fear he will go.

vereor ut eat, I fear he will not go.

si moneam audiat (pres.), *if I should warn, he would hear.*

si vocārem audiret (imperf.), *if I were* (now) *calling, he would hear.*

quae cum dixisset abiit, and when he had said this, he went away.

NOTE.—The Latin Subjunctive is often translated, formally, by means of the English auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, etc., to distinguish it from the Indicative, because the English has no subjunctive in general use. But the Latin uses the subjunctive in many cases where we use the indicative; and we use a colorless auxiliary in many cases where the Latin employs a separate verb with more definite meaning. Thus, *I may write* is often not *scribam* (subj.), but *licet mihi scribere*; *I can write* is *possum scribere*; *I would write* is *scribam*, *scriberem*, or *scribere velim* (vellem); *I should write*, (if, etc.), *scriberem* (si) . . . , or (implying duty) *oportet me scribere*.

c. The IMPERATIVE is used for *exhortation*, *entreaty*, or *command*; but its place is often supplied by the Subjunctive (§§ 266, 269).

d. The INFINITIVE is used chiefly as an indeclinable noun, as the subject or object of another verb (§§ 270, 271. a). In special constructions it takes the place of the Indicative, and may be translated by that mood in English (see "Indirect Discourse," § 335 ff.).

NOTE.—For the Syntax of the Moods, see § 264 ff.

3. Participles.

118. The PARTICIPLES of the Latin verb are used as follows:—

a. The Present participle (ending in *-ns*) has commonly the same meaning and use as the English participle in *-ING*: as, *vocāns*, *calling*; *legentēs*, *reading*. (For its inflection, see *egēns*, § 85).

b. 1. The Future participle (ending in *-ūrus*) is oftenest used to express what is *likely* or *about* to happen.

NOTE.—When thus used with the tenses of the verb TO BE it forms what is called the First Periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as, *urbs est cāsūra*, *the city is about to fall*; *mānsūrus eram*, *I was going to stay*.

2. It is also used, more rarely, to express purpose (see § 293. b): as, *vēnit audiērus*, *he came to hear* (about to hear).

c. The Perfect participle (ending in *-tus*, *-sus*) has two uses:—

1. It is sometimes equivalent to the English Perfect Passive participle in *-ED*: as, *tēctus*, *sheltered*; *acceptus*, *accepted*; *ictus*, *having been struck*; and often has simply an adjective meaning: as, *acceptus*, *acceptable*.

2. It is also used to form certain tenses of the passive (§ 110. b): as, *vocātus est*, *he was* (has been) *called*.

NOTE.—There is no Perfect Active or Present Passive participle in Latin. The perfect participle of deponents, however, is generally used in an active sense, as *secūtus*, *having followed*. In the case of other verbs some different construction is used for these missing participles: as, *cum vēnisset*, *having come* (when he had come); *equitātū praemissō*, *having sent forward the cavalry* (the cavalry having been sent forward); *dum verberātur*, *while he is* (being) *struck* (= *τυπώμενος*).

d. 1. The Gerundive (ending in *-ndus*) is often used as an adjective implying obligation or necessity (*ought* or *must*): as, *audiendus est*, *he must be heard*.

NOTE.—When thus used with the tenses of the verb TO BE it forms the Second Periphrastic conjugation *diligendus erat*, *he ought to have been chosen* (§ 129).

2. In the oblique cases the Gerundive commonly has the same meaning as the Gerund (cf. § 114. a), though its construction is different. (For examples, see § 295 ff.)

e. The Participles may all be used as simple adjectives; and the present and perfect participles are sometimes compared as adjectives: as, *amēns*, *amantior*, *more fond*; *dilectus*, *dilectissimus*, *dearest*.

f. The Present and Perfect participles are (like adjectives) often used as nouns, especially in the plural (§ 188): as, *regentēs*, *rulers* (those ruling); *mortuī*, *the dead*.

g. As an adjective, the participle is often used predicatively to indicate some special circumstance or situation: as, *moritūri vōs salūtāmus*, *we at the point of death (about to die) salute you.*

4. Gerund and Supine.

114. The Gerund and Supine are used as follows:—

a. The GERUND is, in form, the neuter singular of the Gerundive. It is a verbal noun, corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in -ING (§ 295): as, *loquendī causā*, *for the sake of speaking.*

NOTE.—In this use the Gerund is found only in the oblique cases. A corresponding nominative is supplied by the Infinitive: thus, *scribere est ūtile*, *writing (to write) is useful*; but, *ars scribendī*, *the art of writing.*

b. The SUPINE is in form a noun of the fourth declension (§ 71. *a.*), found only in the accusative ending in -tum, -sum and the ablative (or dative, probably both) ending in -tū, -sū. These are sometimes called the Former and the Latter Supine. The Former is used after verbs and the Latter after adjectives (§§ 302, 303): as, —

1. *vēnit spectātum*, *he came to see.*
2. *mīrābile dictū*, *wonderful to tell.*

5. Tenses.

115. The tenses of the verb are of two classes, viz.:—

1. *Of continued action.*

1. PRESENT: *scribō*, *I am writing.*
2. IMPERFECT: *scribēbam*, *I was writing.*
3. FUTURE: *scribam*, *I shall write.*

2. *Of completed action.*

4. PERFECT: *scripsi*, *I have written, I wrote.*
5. PLUPERFECT: *scripseram*, *I had written.*
6. FUTURE PERFECT: *scripserō*, *I shall have written.*

a. Tenses of the Indicative.

a. The tenses of the Indicative have, in general, the same meaning as the corresponding tenses in English; but are in some cases distinguished differently in their use. Thus —

1. The Future or Future Perfect is often used in subordinate clauses where we use the Present: as, —

si quid habēbō dabō, *if I have (shall have) any thing, I will give.*
cum vērō scribam, *when I come (shall have come), I will write*

2. The Present and Imperfect are often used to express *continued action* where the English uses tenses of *completed action*: as, —

iam diū aegrōtō, I have long been (and still am) *sick.*

iam diū aegrōtābam, I had long been (and still was) *sick.*

NOTE. — Here the Perfect, *aegrōtāvī*, would imply that I am now well; the Pluperfect, that I was well at the past time designated.

b. The Imperfect is used to *describe* in past time a *continued action* or a *condition of things*: as, *scribēbat, he was writing*; *ardēbat, it was on fire.*

c. The Perfect, having two separate uses, is divided into the Perfect Definite and the Perfect Historical (or Indefinite).

1. The Perfect Definite represents the action of the verb as completed in present time, and corresponds to the English (present- or compound-) perfect: as, *scripsī, I have written.*

2. The Perfect Historical *narrates* a simple act or state in past time without representing it as in progress or continuing. It corresponds to the English past or preterite and the Greek aorist: as, *scripsit, he wrote*; *arsit, it blazed up.*

b. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

d. The tenses of the Subjunctive Mood are chiefly used in dependent clauses, following the rule for the Sequence of Tenses (see § 286); but have also special idiomatic uses (see Syntax, §§ 266 ff., 283, 308).

III.—PERSONAL ENDINGS.

116. Verbs have regular terminations¹ for each of the three Persons, both singular and plural, active and passive. These are:—

Sing.	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
1. -m (-ō or -ī):	am-ō, <i>I love.</i>	-r:	amo-r, <i>I am loved.</i>
2. -s:	amā-s, <i>thou lovest.</i>	-ris or -re:	amā-ris, <i>thou art loved.</i>
3. -t:	ama-t, <i>he loves.</i>	-tur:	amā-tur, <i>he is loved.</i>
Plur.	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.
1. -mus:	amā-mus, <i>we love.</i>	-mur:	amā-mur, <i>we are loved.</i>
2. -tis:	amā-tis, <i>you love.</i>	-mini:	amā-mini, <i>you are loved.</i>
3. -nt:	ama-nt, <i>they love.</i>	-ntur:	ama-ntur, <i>they are loved.</i>

¹ These terminations are fragments of old Pronouns, whose signification is thus added to that of the verb-stem (compare p. 19, note 1). But the ending -mini in the second person plural of the passive is a remnant of the participial form found in the Greek -μενοι, and has supplanted the proper form, which does not appear in Latin. It is thought by some scholars that -nt has a similar origin.

NOTE.—The present indicative of the active voice has lost the *-m*, and ends in the modified stem-vowel *-ō* except in *sum* and *inquam* (§§ 119, 144.). This *ō* stands for *m* blended in sound with a preceding vowel (*amō* = *fama-m*). The perfect, the future perfect, and the future in *-bo* have also lost the *-m*.

a. The Perfect Indicative active has the special terminations:—

SING. 2. *-stī*: amāv-i-stī, *thou lovedst*.

PLUR. 2. *-stis*: amāv-i-stis, *you loved*.

3. *-ēre* or *-ēre*: amāv-ēre (or *-ēre*), *they loved*.

b. The Imperative has the following terminations:—

Sing.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

2. —: amā, *love thou*.

-re: amā-re, *be thou loved*.

2. *-tō*: amā-tō, *thou shalt love*.

-tor: amā-tor, *thou shalt be loved*.

3. *-tō*: amā-tō, *let him love*.

-tor: amā-tor, *let him be loved*.

Plur.

2. *-te*: amā-te, *love ye*.

-mini: amā-mini, *be ye loved*.

2. *-tōte*: amā-tōte, *ye shall love*. — —

3. *-ntō*: ama-ntō, *let them love*. *-ntor*: ama-ntor, *let them be loved*.

IV.—FORMS OF THE VERB.

117. Every Latin verb-form (except the adjective and noun forms) is made up of two parts, viz.:—

1. The STEM (see § 21). This is either the root or a modification or development of it.

2. The ENDING, consisting of—

a. the signs of mood and tense.

b. the personal ending (see § 116).

NOTE 1.—Thus in the verb *vocā-vi-t*, *he called*, the root is *voc*, modified into the verb-stem *vocā-*, which by the addition of the tense sign *-ui* (*-vī*) becomes the perfect tense *vocāvi*; and to this is added the personal ending (*-t*) of the third person singular.

NOTE 2.—These endings are of various origin. In none of them, however, is the tense or mood sign strictly inserted between the root and the personal terminations. All verb-forms are either inherited from a time when the elements were still significant and could still be compounded, or are imitations of such inherited forms.

118. The Verb-endings, as they are formed by the signs for mood and tense combined with personal endings, are exhibited in the following table:—

ACTIVE.			PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.		INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Present.</i>				
<i>Sing.</i> 1. -ō			-or	-r
2.			-ris or -re	-ris or -re
3. -t	-t		-tur	-tur
<i>Plur.</i> 1. -mus	-mus		-mur	-mur
2. -tis	-tis		-mini	-mini
3. -nt	-nt		-ntur	-ntur
<i>Imperfect.</i>				
<i>Sing.</i> 1. -ba-m	-re-m		-ba-r	-re-r
2. -bā-s	-rē-s		-bā-ris (-re)	-rē-ris (-re)
3. -ba-t	-re-t		-bā-tur	-rē-tur
<i>Plur.</i> 1. -bā-mus	-rē-mus		-bā-mur	-rē-mur
2. -bā-tis	-rē-tis		-bā-mini	-rē-mini
3. -ba-nt	-re-nt		-bā-ntur	-re-ntur

INDICATIVE.		FUTURE.	INDICATIVE.	
I. II. ¹	III. IV.		I. II. ¹	III. IV. ¹
<i>Sing.</i> 1. -b-ō			-bo-r	-a-r
2. -bi-s	-ē-s		-be-ris (-re)	-ē-ris (-re)
3. -bi-t	-t		bi-tur	-ē-tur
<i>Plur.</i> 1. -bi-mus	-ē-mus		-bi-mur	-ē-mur
2. -bi-tis	-ē-tis		-bi-mini	-ē-mini
3. -bu-nt	-t-nt		bun-tur	-ē-ntur
INDIC.	SUBJ.	PERFECT.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Sing.</i> 1. -ī	-eri-m	-tus (-ta, -tum)	sum	sim
2. -i-stī	-eri-s		es	sīs
3. -i-t	-eri-t		est	sit
<i>Plur.</i> 1. -i-mus	-eri-mus	-tī (-tae, -ta)	sumus	simus
2. -i-stis	-eri-tis		estis	sītis
3. -ru-nt or -ēre	-eri-nt		sunt	sint

<i>Pluperfect.</i>				
<i>Sing.</i> 1. -era-m	-isse-m	-tus (-ta, -tum)	eram	essem
2. -erā-s	-issē-s		erās	essēs
3. -era-t	-isse-t		erat	esset
<i>Plur.</i> 1. -erā-mus	-issē-mus	-tī (-tae, -ta)	erāmus	essēmus
2. -erā-tis	-issē-tis		erātis	essētis
3. -era-nt	-isse-nt		erant	essent

¹ These numerals refer to the four conjugations given later (see § 122).

Future Perfect	
<i>Sing.</i> 1. -er-ō	-tus(-ta, -tum) {
2. -eris	
3. -erit	
<i>Plur.</i> 1. -eri-mus	-tū(-tā, -tā) {
2. -eritis	
3. -erint	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.

<i>Sing.</i> 2. —	<i>Plur.</i> 2. -te		<i>Sing.</i> 2. -re	<i>Plur.</i> 2. -minī
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Future.

2. -tō	2. -tōte		2. -tor	2. —
3. -tō	3. -ntō		3. -tor	3. -ntor

For convenience a table of the Noun and Adjective forms of the verb is here added.

INFINITIVES.

<i>Pres.</i> -re (Pres. stem)	I. II. IV. -rī; III. -ī
<i>Perf.</i> -isse (Perf. stem)	-tus (-ta, -tum) esse
<i>Fut.</i> -tūrus (-a, -um) esse	-tum iri

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Pres.</i> -ns, -ntis	—
<i>Perf.</i> —	-tus, -ta, -tum
<i>Fut.</i> -tūrus, -a, -um	<i>Ger.</i> -ndus, -a, -um

GERUND.

-ndī, -ndō, -ndum, -ndō

SUPINE.

-tum, -tū

NOTE.—The *i* of the Perfect, which in early Latin is always *long* except before -mus, is of doubtful origin. It is probably in all cases a part of the stem, as it is in *dedi*, *seti*, where it takes the place of the vowel *a*. In the suffixes -vī (of unknown origin) and -sī (akin to those of Greek *διδίκα* and Skr. *adiksham*), and in the perfects of consonant-roots, it seems to be, but probably is not, a mere connecting vowel. The *s* before -tī and -tis is also anomalous. Most scholars regard it as a remnant of *es*; but it may be, like the personal endings, of pronominal origin.

The Passive is a *middle* (or reflexive) form peculiar to Latin and Celtic, and of uncertain origin.

The Verb Sum.

119. The verb *sum*, *be*, is both irregular and defective, having no gerund or supine, and no participle but the future.

Its conjugation is given at the outset, on account of its importance for the inflection of all other verbs.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. sum, Infin. esse, Perf. fui,
Fut. Part. futūrus.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

Sing. 1. sum, *I am.*

2. es, *thou art (you are).*

3.* est, *he (she, it) is.*

Plur. 1. sumus, *we are.*

2. estis, *you are.*

3. sunt, *they are.*

sim¹

sis

sit

simus

sitis

sint

Imperfect.

Sing. 1. eram, *I was.*

2. erās, *you were.*

3. erat, *he (she, it) was.*

Plur. 1. erāmus, *we were.*

2. erātis, *you were.*

3. erant, *they were.*

essem (forem)

essēs (forēs)

esset (foret)

essēmus

essētis

essent (fovent)

Future.

Sing. 1. erō, *I shall be.*

2. eris, *you will be.*

3. erit, *he will be.*

Plur. 1. erimus, *we shall be.*

2. eritis, *you will be.*

3. erunt, *they will be.*

Perfect.

Sing. 1. fui, *I was (have been).*

2. fuisti, *you were*

3. fuit, *he was.*

Plur. 1. fuimus, *we were.*

2. fuistis, *you were.*

3. fuerunt, fuere, *they were*

fuerim

fueris

fuerit

fuerimus

fueritis

fuerint

Pluperfect.

Sing. 1. fueram, *I had been.*

2. fuerās, *you had been.*

3. fuerat, *he had been.*

Plur. 1. fuerāmus, *we had been.*

2. fuerātis, *you had been.*

3. fuerant, *they had been.*

fuissem

fuisēs

fuisset

fuisēmus

fuisētis

fuisent

¹ All translations of the subjunctive are misleading, and hence none is given, see § 222. A

Future Perfect.

- Sing.* 1. fuerō, *I shall have been.* *Plur.* 1. fuerimus, *we shall have been.*
 2. fueris, *you will have been.* 2. fueritis, *you will have been.*
 3. fuerit, *he will have been.* 3. fuerint, *they will have been.*

IMPERATIVE.

- Present.* *Sing.* 2. es, *be thou.* *Plur.* 2. este, *be ye.*
Future. 2. estō, *thou shalt be.* 2. estōte, *ye shall be.*
 3. estō, *he shall be.* 3. suntō, *they shall be.*

INFINITIVE.

- Present.* esse, *to be.*
Perfect. fuisse, *to have been.*
Future. fore or futūrus esse, *to be about to be.*

PARTICIPLE.

- Future.* futūrus, -a, -um, *about to be.*

α. The present participle, which should be *†sēns* (compare Sanskrit *sant*), appears in that form in *ab-sēns*, *prae-sēns*; and as *ēns* (compare *ων*) in *pot-ēns*. The simple form *ēns* is sometimes found in late or philosophical Latin as a participle or abstract noun, in the forms *ēns*, *being*; *entia*, *things which are*.

β. RARE FORMS.—Indicative: Future, *escit*, *escunt* (strictly *an* inchoative present, see § 167. a).

Subjunctive: Present, *slem*, *sīs*, *siet*, *sient*; *suam*, *suās*, *suat*, *fuant*; Perfect, *fūvimus*; Pluperfect, *fūvisset*.

NOTE.—For *essem*, etc., *forem*, *forēs*, etc., are often used without difference of meaning.

120. The verb *sum* appears in numerous compounds, which will be treated under Irregular Verbs (§ 137).

NOTE.—The root of the verb *sum* is *es*, which in the imperfect is changed to *er* (see § 11. a. 1), and in many cases is shortened to *s*. Some of its modifications, as found in several languages more or less closely related to Latin, may be seen in the following table,—the “Indo-European” being the primitive or theoretic form, and the form *śam* corresponding to the Latin *sim* (*slem*):—

INDO-EUROPEAN.	SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	LITHUANIAN.
es-mi	as-mi	ἔμμι ¹	s-um	es-mi
es-si	as-i	ἔσσι	es	es-i
es-ti	as-ti	ἔσσι	es-t	es-ti
s-masi	s-mas	ἔσμεν	s-umus	es-mas
s-tasi	s-tas	ἔσθε	es-tis	es-tas
s-anti	s-anti	ἔσσι	s-unt	es-anti

The Perfect and Supine stems, *fui*, *futūro*, are kindred with the Greek *ἐφ*, and with the English *be*.

The Three Stems.

121. The parts of the Latin verb may be formed upon three different stems (partly real and partly supposed), called the Present, the Perfect, and the Supine Stem (see notes, pp. 86, 119 ff.).

a. The tenses of *continued action*, both active and passive, together with the Gerund and Gerundive, are formed upon the PRESENT STEM, and collectively are called the Present System.

b. The tenses of *completed action* in the active voice are formed upon the PERFECT STEM, and are called the Perfect System.

c. The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine are formed upon the SUPINE STEM, and are called the Supine System.

NOTE 1. — Since Latin verbs are commonly spoken of under the form of their present tense, the other parts are usually said to be derived from this. It is only in the verbs formed later in the language that this is true. Thus *armāvi*, *I have armed*, does come from *armō*, *I arm*, but *sivī*, *I have allowed*, does not come from *sino*, *I allow*; but both *sino* and *sivī* come from a common source, the root (see §§ 22, 123, 124), by different processes.

NOTE 2. — *The Influence of Analogy.* Many Latin verbs were not inherited from the parent speech, but formed during the separate existence of the language. forms of these verbs are not strictly compounds of root or stem and ending, but imitations of verbs already existing in Latin. For it is only by analogy that elements (parts of words) not complete and significant in themselves can be used to form words in a developed language. When stems are not felt as significant, they cannot be used for composition. Thus a form like *fugābat* could be made only from a complete word *fuga*, or from some form in which *fuga* seemed to be a complete word, and must be regarded, not as a compound of stem and auxiliary, *fugā* + *bat* (like *arā* + *bat*), but as an imitation of forms like *arābat*, which originally were really compounds. Simple Perfects like *dedi* and compound forms like *vēxi* have both influenced, by analogy, the production of new forms, like *momordi* from *mordeo*, *mānsi* from *maneo*.

V. — REGULAR VERBS.

Latin verbs are classed as Regular or Irregular according as they do or do not follow the inflection of the Four Conjugations.

122. There are in Latin four principal forms of Present Stems, ending respectively in *a*-, *e*-, *i*-, *o*-. With this difference of stem most of the other differences of conjugation coincide.

a. Verbs are accordingly classed in Four Regular Conjugations, distinguished by the stem-vowel which appears before *-re* in the Present Infinitive Active.

b. The PRINCIPAL PARTS of a verb, which determine its conjugation throughout, are—

1. The Present Indicative { showing the *present stem* and
2. The Present Infinitive } the *conjugation*.
3. The Perfect Indicative, showing the *perfect stem*.
4. The Supine (or the Perfect Participle), showing the *supine stem*.

c. The regular forms of the conjugations are seen in the following:—

First: Active, *amō, amāre, amāvī, amātum, love.*

Passive, *amor, amārī, amātus.*

Present- and Verb-stem *amā-*, Perfect-stem *amāv-*, Supine-stem *amāt-*.

Second: *dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum, blot out.*

Passive, *dēleor, dēlērī, dēlētus.*

Present- and Verb-stem *dēlē-*, Perfect-stem, *dēlēv-*, Supine-stem *dēlēt-*.

Third: *tegō, tegēre, tēxī, tēctum, cover.*

Passive, *tegor, tegī, tēctus.*

Root *TEG*, Verb-stem *tegē-*, Perfect-stem *tēx-*, Supine-stem *tēct-*.

Fourth: *audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītum, hear.*

Passive, *audior, audīrī, audītus.*

Present- and Verb-stem *audī-*, Perfect-stem, *audīv-*, Supine-stem, *audīt-*.

In the Second conjugation, however, the characteristic *ē-* rarely appears in the perfect and supine: the type of this conjugation is, therefore—

Second: *moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum, warn.*

Passive, *moneor, monērī, monitus.*

d. In many verbs the principal parts take forms belonging to two or more different conjugations (cf. § 134): as,—

1. 2, *domō, domāre, domuī, domitum, subdue.*
2. 3, *maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsūm, remain.*
3. 4, *petō, petēre, petīvī, petītum, seek.*
4. 3, *vinciō, vincīre, vinxī, vinctum, bind.*

Such verbs are referred to the conjugation to which the first or Present stem conforms.

1. Present Stem.

NOTE. — The parent speech from which Latin comes possessed verbs with present stems of three different kinds. These verbs were formed as follows: —

First: From roots, by adding the personal endings.

Second: From noun-stems, by adding the personal endings. These noun-stems had been formed from roots by the addition of various suffixes, as *a-*, *na-*, *ya-*, *ta-*.

Third: From roots and stems, by adding a common suffix (probably *-yami*, etc., later *-yomi*) which already contained the personal endings.

Verbs of all these forms were inherited by the Latin. Of the first class few survive, and these are counted as irregular, except such as have been forced into some one of the four conjugations. Examples are: *est*, from *edō*; *fert*, from *ferō*; *dās*, from *dō* (*dāre*); *flēmus*, from *flēō*.

Of the second class a large number remain. In these the verb-stem ends in a short vowel, *ē* (*i-*). This is a remnant of the original vowel *ā* (*ō*-) of the noun-suffixes. Besides this, the consonant of the suffix is often preserved. Verbs of this form are often called *primitive verbs*, because the language lost the power of making new forms of this type except in a few cases. They make up the third conjugation. Examples are: *ferō* (stem *fero-*) for *bher-o-mi* (cf. *fert* in the first class); *sternimus* (stem *sterno-*) for *star-no-mas*; *plectunt* (stem *plecto-*) for *plec-to-nti*; *pellō* (stem *pello-*) for *pel-yo-mi*. So *dīscō* (stem *dīscō-*) for *dī(o)sco-mi*. This last form became the type for a large number of verbs called *inceptive* (see § 167. a).

Of the third class, those verbs in which any vowel (except *u*) came in contact with the suffix (*-yami*) suffered contraction so as to present a long vowel, *ā-*, *ē-*, *i-*, at the end of the stem. These became the types of the first, second, and fourth conjugations respectively. In imitation of these long vowel-stems, numerous verbs were formed by the Romans themselves (after the mode of formation had been entirely forgotten) from noun and adjective stems. This came to be the regular way of forming new verbs, just as in English the borrowed suffix *-ise* can be added to adjectives to make a verb; as, *modernise*.

Those verbs of the third class in which a consonant or *u* came in contact with the suffix *-yami* suffered various phonetic changes. Such verbs fell partly into the third conjugation, giving rise to an irregular form of it, and partly into the fourth, and some have forms of both.

Examples are: (*edn*)*spiciō*, *spicere*, for *spek-yomi*; *veniō*, *venire*, for (*g*)*veg-yomi*; *cupiō*, *cupere*, but *cupivī*; *orior*, *oritur*, but *orivī*. But *pluō*, *pluere*, for *plu-yomi*; and hence, by analogy, *acuō*,

But in all these cases many cross analogies and errors as well as phonetic changes have been at work to produce irregularities. Hence has arisen the traditional system which may be practically represented as follows:—

123. The Present Stem is formed from the Root in all regular verbs in one of the following ways:¹—

a. In the First, Second, and Fourth conjugations, by adding a *long vowel* (ā, ē, ī) to the root, whose vowel is sometimes changed: as, **vocā-re** (VOC), **monē-re** (MEN, cf. *memini*), **sopī-re** (SOP).

NOTE.—These verb-stems are almost all really formed from noun-stems on the pattern of older formations (see note, p. 86).

b. In the Third conjugation, by adding a *short vowel* (ē, ī) to the root: as, **tegē-re** (TEG), **allī-tis** (AL). This vowel may be preceded—

1. By *n, t, sc*, or the terminal consonant of the root repeated (a phonetic representative of original *i*): as, **temne-re** (TEM), **plect-ō** (PLEC), **crēscere-re** (CRĒ), **pell-ō** (for *pel-iō*, PEL), **mitt-ō** (MIT).

2. By *i*, which in most forms disappears in inflection (see § 126. c): as, **fug-i-ō**, **fug-ē-re** (FUG).

c. The root may also be changed—

1. By lengthening the vowel: as, **dīc-e-re** (DIC), **caed-e-re** (CAD?).

2. By the repetition of a part of it (*reduplication*): as, **gī-gn-e-re** (GEN).

3. By inserting a nasal (*m* or *n*): as, **find-e-re** (FID); **tang-e-re** (TAG).

d. In some verbs the present stem is formed from a noun-stem irregularly treated as a root: as, **statu-e-re** (*statu-s*), **aestu-ā-re** (*aestu-s*); cf. *acuō*, *acuere*.

e. A few isolated forms use the simple root as a present stem: as, **fer-re**, **fer-t**; **es-se**; **velle**, **vult**. These are counted as irregular.

¹ These formations may be traced in the following parallel inflections:—

SANSKRIT.		SANSKRIT.		SANSKRIT.	
1. vāch-ayā-mi	<i>voc-(ā)-ō</i>	2. vah-ā-mi	<i>veh-ō</i>	3. paç-yā-mi	<i>spic-i-ō</i>
vach-aya-si	<i>voc-ā-s</i>	vah-a-si	<i>veh-i-s</i>	paç-ya-si	<i>spic-i-s</i>
vach-aya-ti	<i>voc-a-t</i>	vah-a-ti	<i>veh-i-t</i>	paç-ya-ti	<i>spic-i-t</i>
vach-ayā-mas	<i>voc-ā-mus</i>	vah-ā-mas	<i>veh-i-mus</i>	paç-yā-mas	<i>spic-i-mus</i>
vach-aya-tha	<i>voc-ā-tis</i>	vah-a-tha	<i>veh-i-tis</i>	paç-ya-tha	<i>spic-i-tis</i>
vach-aya-nti	<i>voc-a-nt</i>	vah-a-nti	<i>veh-a-nt</i>	paç-ya-nti	<i>spic-i-nt</i>

In some cases there appears to be a connecting vowel not explained above; but this comes from the irregular use of a verb-stem in place of a root, as in *ortūrus* (cf. *ortus*), *monitūrus* (cf. *mōns*, *mentis*).

f. A few have roots ending in a vowel. These generally use as present stem the root without additions, but sometimes modified: as, **da-mus** (DA), **flē-mus** (stem **flē-**, root form unknown), **sisti-mus** (STA). But others, as **ruī-mus** (RU), are formed with an additional vowel according to the analogy of *d*.

2. Perfect Stem.

124. The Perfect Stem is formed as follows:—

a. The suffix **v** (**u**) (see p. 120, *c*) is added to the verb-stem: as, **vocā-v-I**, **audī-v-I**; or to the root: as, **son-u-I** (**sonā-re**, root **SON**), **mon-u-I** (**monē-re**, **MON** treated as a root).

NOTE.—In a few verbs the vowel of the root is transposed and lengthened (see § 9, *d*): as, **strā-v-I** (**sternō**, **stār**), **sprā-v-I** (**spērō**, **spār**).

b. The suffix **s** is added to the root: as, **carp-s-I** (**CARP**), **tēx-I** (for **teg-s-I**, **TEG**).

NOTE.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the perfect: as, **finx-I** (**FIG**, present stem **finḡ-**), **sax-I** (**SAC**, present stem **sancī-**).

c. The root is *reduplicated* by prefixing the first consonant—generally with **ē**, sometimes with the root-vowel: as, **ce-cid-I** (**cadō**, **CAD**), **to-tond-I** (**tondō**, **TOND**).

NOTE.—In **fid-I** (for **†fe-fid-I**, **find-ō**), **scid-I** (for **†sci-scid-I**, **scindō**), the reduplication has been lost, leaving merely the root.

d. The root-vowel is lengthened: as, **ēg-I** (**āg-ō**), **fūg-I** (**fūg-i-ō**).

e. The root itself is used as the perfect stem: as, **vert-I** (**vert-ō**, **VERT**), **solv-I** (**solv-ō**, **SOLV** used as root).

f. Sometimes the perfect is formed from a lost or imaginary stem: as, **petī-v-I** (as if from **†peti-ō**, **†peti-re**, **PET**).

3. Supine Stem.

125. The Supine Stem¹ is formed by adding **t** (or phonetically **s**):—

a. To the verb-stem: as, **amā-t-um**, **dēlī-t-um**, **audī-t-um**.

b. To the root, with or without **I**: as, **cap-t-um** (**capīō**, **CAP**), **monī-t-um** (**moneō**, **MON** used as root), **cās-um** (for **cad-t-um**, **CAD**).

NOTE 1.—The modifications of the present stem sometimes appear in the supine: as, **ting-t-um** (**tingō**, **TIG**), **tēn-s-um** (**ten-d-ō**, **TEN**).

NOTE 2.—The supine is sometimes from a lost or imaginary verb-stem: as, **petī-t-um** (as if from **†peti-ō**, **†peti-re**, **PET**).

¹ For the modifications of the Supine Stem, see p. 121, 3.

126. The forms of the several conjugations from which, by adding the verb endings in § 118, all the moods and tenses can be made are as follows:—

a. The First Conjugation includes all verbs which add *a-* to the root to form the present stem:¹ as, *amā-re*; with a few whose root ends in *a* (*dā*, *dā-re*; *for*, *fārī*; *flā*, *flā-re*; *nā*, *nā-re*; *stā*, *stā-re*).

1. The stem-vowel *a-* is lost before *-ō* (as, *amō* = *†amā-ō*), and in the present subjunctive is changed to *ē*: as, *amē-s*, *amē-mus*.

2. The perfect stem regularly adds *v*, the supine stem *t*, to the present stem: as, *amā-v-ī*, *amā-t-um*. For exceptions, see § 130.

b. The Second Conjugation includes all verbs which add *e-* to the root to form the present stem, as *monē-re*; with a few whose root ends in *ē* (*flē-ō*, *flē-re*; *neō*, *nē-re*; *re-or*, *rē-rī*).

1. In the present subjunctive *a* is added to the verb-stem: as, *mone-ā-s*, *moñe-ā-mus* (cf. § 118).

2. A few verbs form the perfect stem by adding *v* (*u*), and the supine stem by adding *t* to the present stem: as, *delē-v-ī*, *delē-t-um*. But most form the perfect stem by adding *v* (*u*) to the root, and the supine stem by adding *t* to a weaker form of the present stem, having *i* for *ē*: as, *mon-u-ī*, *monī-t-um*. For lists, see § 131.

c. The Third Conjugation includes all verbs (not irregular, see § 137) which add *ē-* to the root to form the present stem: as, *tegē-re*, *capē-re*; with a few whose root ends in *ē*: as, *se-rē-re* for *†se-se-re* (reduplicated from *se*, cf. *sātum*).

1. The stem-vowel *ē-* is lost before *-ō*, becomes *u*² before *-nt*, and *i* before the other endings of the indicative and imperative: as, *teg-ō*, *teg-it*, *tegu-nt*; in the imperfect indicative it becomes *ē*: as, *tegē-bam*; in the future, *ē*: as, *tegēs*; in the present subjunctive *a*: as, *tegā-s*.

Verbs in *-ō* retain the *i* before *a*, *ō*, *u*, and *ē*: as, *capi-at*, *capi-unt*, *capi-ēbat*, *capi-ēs*, *capi-et*³; but lose it elsewhere. as, *cap-it* (not *†capi-it*), *cap-eret*.

2. All forms of perfect and supine stems are found in this conjugation. See lists, § 132. But the perfect is never formed from the present stem, but always from the root (§ 121. n. 1).

¹ The present stem is thus the verb-stem. For exceptions, see § 130.

² The gerundive varies between *-endus* and *-undus* (§ 12. *d*).

³ The *e* in *capiet* once long, was afterwards shortened.

d. The Fourth Conjugation includes all verbs which add **i** to the root to form the present stem: **as, audī-re**.¹ In these the perfect and supine stems regularly add **v, t**, to the verb-stem: **as, audī-v-i, audī-t-um**.² The endings of the third conjugation are added in the third person plural of the present (indicative and imperative), in the imperfect and future indicative, and in the present subjunctive: **as, audi-unt, audi-ſbat, audi-ſtis, audi-at**.

e. The Pres. Imperative Act. (second pers. sing.) is the same as the present stem: **as, amā, monē, tegē, audī**. But verbs in **-iō** of the third conjugation omit **i**: **as, capē** (not **†capie**).

f. The tenses of *completed action* are all regularly formed by adding the tense-endings (given in § 118) to the perfect stem: **as, amāv-i, amāv-eram, amāv-erō, amāv-erim, amāv-issem, amāv-isse**

g. The tenses of *completed action* in the Passive voice are formed by adding to the perfect participle the corresponding tenses of *continued action* of the verb **esse**: **as, perf. amātus sum; plup. amātus eram, etc.**

4. Synopsis of the Verb.

127. The following synopsis shows the forms of the verbs arranged according to the several stems. **Amō**, a regular verb of the first conjugation, is taken as a type.

PRESENT STEM, **amā-**; PERFECT STEM, **amāv-**; SUPINE STEM, **amāt-**.

	PRES.	IMPERF.	FUT.	PERF.	PLUPERF.	FUT. PLRF
IND.	amō	amā-bam	amā-bō	amāv-i	amāv-eram	amāv-erō
SUB.	ame-m	amā-rem	—	amāv-erim	amāv-issem	—
IMP. 2.	amā	—	amā-tō	—	—	—
INF.	amā-re	—	amāt-ūrus	amāv-isse	—	—
			esse			
PART.	amā-us	—	amāt-ūrus	—	—	—
IND.	amo-r	amā-bar	amā-bor	amāt-us sum	— eram	— erō
SUB.	ame-r	amā-rer	—	amāt-us sim	— essem	—
IMP. 2.	amā-re	—	amā-tor	—	—	—
INF.	amā-rī	—	amā-tum Irī	amāt-us esse	—	—
PART.	—	—	Ger. amā-ndus	amāt-us	—	—

¹ A few are formed from noun-stems, as **finī-re** (from **fini-s**), and a few roots end in **i**; but these are not distinguishable in form.

² For exceptions, see § 133.

128. The following special forms require notice:—

a. In tenses formed upon the perfect stem, *v* between two vowels is often lost and contraction takes place. Thus,—

1. Perfects in *-āvī*, *-ōvī*, *-ōvī*, often contract the two vowels into *ā*, *ē*, *ō* respectively: as, *amāsse* for *amāvisse*; *amārim* for *amāverim*; *amāssem* for *amāvisssem*; *cōnsuērat* for *cōnsuēverat*; *flēstis* for *flēvistis*; *nōsse* for *nōvisse*. So in perfects in *-vī*, where the *v* is a part of the present stem: as, *commōrat* for *commōverat*.

NOTE.—The first person of the perfect indicative (as *amāvī*) is never contracted, the third very rarely.

2. Perfects in *-ivī* regularly omit *v*, but rarely contract the vowels except before *st* and *ss*, and very rarely in the third person perfect: as, *audieram* for *audiveram*; *audīsse* for *audivisse*; *audistī* for *audivistī*; *abiit* for *abīvit*. The forms *sīris*, *sīrit*, *sīritis*, *sīrint*, for *sīveris*, etc. (from *sīverō* or *sīverim*), are archaic.

3. In many forms from the perfect stem, *is*, *iss*, *sis* are lost in like manner when *s* would be repeated if they were retained: as, *dixitī* for *dixistī* (*x* = *cs*); *trāxe* for *trāxisse*; *ēvāstī* for *ēvāsisistī*; *vixet* for *vixisset*; *ērēpsēmus* for *ērēpsissēmus*. These forms belong to archaic and colloquial usage.

4. Four verbs—*dīcō*, *dūcō*, *faciō*, *ferō*—with their compounds, drop the vowel-termination of the imperative, making *dīcō*, *dūcō*, *fācō*, *fēr*; but compounds in *-ficiō* retain it, as *cōnfice*. The forms *dīce*, *dūce*, *face* (never *ferē*), occur in early Latin.

5. For the imperative of *sciō*, the future form *scītō* is always used in the singular, and *scītōte* usually in the plural.

6. The following ancient forms are chiefly found in poetry:—

1. In the fourth conjugation *-ībā*, *-ībō* for *-iēbā*, *-iēam* (future). These forms are regular in *eō*, *gō* (§ 141).

2. In the present subjunctive *-im*: as in *dnīm*, *perdnīm* (for *dem*, *†perdem*), retained in religious formulas. This form is regular in *sum* and *volō* and their compounds (§§ 119, 138).

3. In the perfect subjunctive and future perfect *-sim*, *-sō*: as, *faxim*, *faxō*, *iūssō*, *recēpsō*, (= *fēcērō*, etc.); *ausim* (= *ausus sim*).

4. In the passive infinitive *-ier*: as, *vocārier* for *vocārī*; *agier* for *agī*.

5. A form in *-āsō*, *-āsere* is found used as a future perfect: as, *amāsia*, from *amō*; *levāsō*, from *levō*; *impetrāsere*, from *impetrō*; *iūdicāsait*, from *iūdicō*.

FIRST CONJUGATION.—ACTIVE VOICE,

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. *amō*, Infin. *amāre*, Perf. *amāvī*
Supine *amātum*.

INDICATIVE.

amō, I love.
amās, thou lovest (you love).
amat, he (she, it) loves.
amāmus, we love.
amātis, you love.
amant, they love.

amābam, I loved.
amābās, you loved.
amābat, he loved.
amābāmus, we loved.
amābātis, you loved.
amābant, they loved.

amābō, I shall love.
amābis, you will love.
amābit, he will love.
amābimus, we shall love.
amābitis, you will love.
amābunt, they will love.

amāvī, I loved.
amāvistī, you loved.
amāvit, he loved.
amāvimus, we loved.
amāvistis, you loved.
amāverunt (-ēre), they loved.

amāveram, I had loved.
amāverās, you had loved.
amāverat, he had loved.
amāverāmus, we had loved.
amāverātis, you had loved.
amāverant, they had loved.

Present.

SUBJUNCTIVE

amem
amēs
amet
amēmus
amētis
ament

Imperfect.

amārem
amārēs
amāret
amārēmus
amārētis
amārent

Future.

Perfect.

amāverim
amāveris
amāverit
amāverimus
amāveritis
amāverint

Pluperfect.

amāvissem
amāvissēs
amāvisset
amāvissēmus
amāvissētis
amāvissent

Future Perfect.

SINGULAR.

amāverō, I shall have loved.
amāveris, you will have loved.
amāverit, he will have loved.

PLURAL.

amāverimus, we shall have loved.
amāveritis, you will have loved.
amāverint, they will have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. amā, love thou.

Fut. 2. amātō, thou shalt love.

3. amātō, he shall love.

amāte, love ye.

amātōte, ye shall love.

amantō, they shall love.

INFINITIVE.

Present. amāre, to love.

Perfect. amāvisse or amāsse, to have loved.

Future. amātūrus esse, to be about to love.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. amāns, -antis, loving.

Future. amātūrus, -a, -um, about to love.

GERUND.

GEN. amandī, of loving.

DAT. amandō, for loving.

ACC. amandum, loving.

ABL. amandō, by loving.

SUPINE.

Former. amātum

Latter. amātū, to love.

129. The so-called Periphrastic conjugations are formed by combining the tenses of *esse* with the Future Active Participle and with the Gerundive: as, —

First Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE.

Pres. amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

Imperf. amātūrus eram, I was about to love.

Fut. amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love.

Perf. amātūrus fui, I was about, etc.

Pluperf. amātūrus fueram, I had been about, etc.

Fut. Perf. amātūrus fuerō, I shall have been about, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

— *sim*

— *essem*

— *fuerim*

— *fuissem*

INFINITIVE: *Pres. amātūrus esse* *Perf. amātūrus fuisse*

Second Periphrastic Conjugation.

Pres. amandus sum, I am to be loved.

Imperf. amandus eram, I was to be loved.

Fut. amandus erō, I shall be [worthy] to be loved.

Perf. amandus fui, I was to be loved.

Pluperf. amandus fueram, I had been, etc.

Fut. Perf. amandus fuerō, I shall have been, etc.

— *sim*

— *essem*

— *fuerim*

— *fuissem*

INFINITIVE: *Pres. amandus esse* *Perf. amandus fuisse*

FIRST CONJUGATION.—PASSIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: Pres. amor, Infin. amārī, Perf. amātus sum.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

amor, *I am loved.*
 amāris (-re), *you are loved.*
 amātur, *he is loved.*
 amāmur, *we are loved.*
 amāmini, *you are loved.*
 amantur, *they are loved.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

amer
 amēris (-re)
 amētur
 amēmur
 amēmini
 amentur

Imperfect.

amābar, *I was loved.*
 amābāris (-re), *you were loved.*
 amābātur, *he was loved.*
 amābāmur, *we were loved.*
 amābāmini, *you were loved.*
 amābantur, *they were loved.*

amārer
 amārēris (-re)
 amārētur
 amārēmur
 amārēmini
 amārentur

Future.

amābor, *I shall be loved.*
 amāberis (-re), *you will be loved.*
 amābitur, *he will be loved.*
 amābimur, *we shall be loved.*
 amābimini, *you will be loved.*
 amābuntur, *they will be loved.*

Perfect.

amātus sum, *I was loved.*
 amātus es, *you were loved.*
 amātus est, *he was loved.*
 amātī sumus, *we were loved.*
 amātī estis, *you were loved.*
 amātī sunt, *they were loved.*

amātus sis
 amātus sis
 amātus sit
 amātī simus
 amātī sitis
 amātī sint

Pluperfect.

amātus eram, *I had been loved.*
 amātus erās, *you had been loved.*
 amātus erat, *he had been loved.*
 amātī erāmus, *we had been loved.*
 amātī erātis, *you had been loved.*
 amātī erant, *they had been loved.*

amātus essem
 amātus esēs
 amātus esset
 amātī essemus
 amātī essētis
 amātī essent

SINGULAR.		Future Perfect.	PLURAL.	
amātus erō, I shall have been loved.			amāti erimus, we shall have, etc.	
amātus eris, you will have, etc.			amāti eritis, you will have, etc.	
amātus erit, he will have, etc.			amāti erunt, they will have, etc.	

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. 2. amāre, be thou loved.	amāmini, be ye loved.
Fut. 2. amātor, thou shalt be loved.	—
3. amātor, he shall be loved.	amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Present. amārī, to be loved.

Perfect. amātus esse, to have been loved.

Future. amātum irī (amātus fore), to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect. amātus, loved (beloved, or having been loved).

Future (Gerundive). amandus, -a, -um, to-be-loved (lovely).

130. There are about 360 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them formed directly on a noun- or adjective-stem: as, armō, arm (arma, arms); caecō, to blind (caecus, blind); exsulō, be an exile (exsul, an exile) (§ 166. a). Their conjugation is usually regular, like amō; though of many only a few forms are found in use.

The following verbs form their Perfect and Supine stems irregularly. Those marked * have also regular forms.

crepō, crepui, crepit, resound.	nectō, *neoui, *nect, kill.
cubō, cubui, cubit, lie down.	plicō, *plicui, *plicit, fold.
dō, dāre, dedi, dāt, give (DA).	pōtō, pōtavi, *pōt, drink.
domō, domui, domit, subdue.	secō, secuī, seot, ¹ cut.
fricō, frioui, *friet, rub.	sonō, sonui, sonit, ¹ sound.
iuvō (ad-iuvō), iuvi, iūt, ¹ help.	stō, steti, stat, (-stit), stand.
labō, -avi (no sup.), totter.	tonō, tonui, tonit, thunder.
micō, micui (no sup.), glitter.	vetō, vetui, vetit, forbid.

NOTE. — Compounds of these verbs have the following forms: —

crepō: dis-crepui or -crepui.

dō: circum-, inter-, pessum-, satis-, super-, vtrum-dō, -dedi, -dat, of the 1st conjugation; other compounds are of the 3d, as comō, condere, condidi, conditum;

micō: di-micavi, -micui; o-micus, -micui.

plicō: re-, sub- (sup-), multi-plicō, -plicavi, -plicui; ex-plicō (unfold), -eti, -eti, (explain), -avi, -at-; im-plicō, -avi (-ui), -cūm (-itum).

stō: cōn-stō, -steti, -stet (-stet); ad-, re-stō, -steti, —; ante- (anti-), super-stō, -steti, —; circum-stō, -steti (-stet), —; di-stō, no perfect or supine.

¹ Future Participle in -aturus.

Etymology: Verbs.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *Active*, moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum;
Passive, moneor, monēri, monitus sum.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Present.</i>			
moneō, <i>I warn.</i>	moneam	moneor	monear
monēs, <i>you warn.</i>	moneās	monēris (-re)	moneāris (-re)
monet, <i>he warns.</i>	moneat	monētur	moneātur
monēmus	moneāmus	monēmur	moneāmur
monētis	moneātis	monēmini	moneāmini
monent	moneant	monentur	moneantur
<i>Imperfect.</i>			
monēbam	monērem	monēbar	monērer
monēbās	monērēs	monēbāris (-re)	monērēris (-re)
monēbat	monēret	monēbātur	monērētur
monēbāmus	monērēmus	monēbāmur	monērēmur
monēbātis	monērētis	monēbāmini	monērēmini
monēbant	monērent	monēbantur	monērentur
<i>Future.</i>			
monēbō		monēbor	
monēbis		monēberis (-re)	
monēbit		monēbitur	
monēbimus		monēbimur	
monēbitis		monēbimini	
monēbunt		monēbuntur	
<i>Perfect.</i>			
monuī	monuerim	monitus sum	monitus sim
monuistī	monueris	monitus es	monitus sis
monuit	monuerit	monitus est	monitus sit
monuimus	monuerimus	moniti sumus	moniti simus
monuistis	monueritis	moniti estis	moniti sitis
monuerunt (-re)	monuerint	moniti sunt	moniti sint
<i>Pluperfect.</i>			
monueram	monuissē	monitus eram	monitus essem
monuerās	monuissēs	monitus erās	monitus esses
monuerat	monuisset	monitus erat	monitus esset
monuerāmus	monuissēmus	moniti erāmus	moniti essemus
monuerātis	monuissētis	moniti erātis	moniti essetis
monuerant	monuissent	moniti erant	moniti essent

Future Perfect.

monuerō	monitus erō
monueris	monitus eris
monuerit	monitus erit
monuerimus	moniti erimus
monueritis	moniti eritis
monuerint	moniti erunt

IMPERATIVE.

SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2. monē	monēte	monēre	monēmini
Fut. 2. monētō	monētōte	monētor	—
3. monētō	monentō	monētor	monentor

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monēre	monērī
Perf. monuisse	monitus esse
Fut. monitūrus esse	monitum irī (monitus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. monēns	Perf. monitus
Fut. monitūrus	Ger. monendus

GERUND.

monendi, -dō, -dum, -dō

SUPINE.

monitum, monitū

131. There are nearly 120 simple verbs of this conjugation, most of them denominative verbs of *condition*, having a corresponding noun and adjective from the same root, and an inceptive in -scō (§ 167. a). as, caleō, *be warm*; calor, *warmth*; calidus, *warm*; calēscō, *grow warm*; timeō, *fear*; timor, *fear*; timidus, *timid*.

Most of the verbs of the second conjugation form their perfect and supine like moneō. The following have -vī and -ctum: dēlēō, *destroy*; flēō, *weep*; nēō, *spin*; vīēō, *plait*; and compounds of -plēō, *fill*; -oleō, *grow*. The remainder are:—

algeō, alsi, <i>be cold</i> .	faveō, fāvi, faut, <i>favor</i> .
ārdeō, ārsi, ārs-, <i>burn</i> .	ferveō, fervi (ferui), <i>glow</i> .
audeō, ausus sum, <i>dare</i> .	foveō, fōvi, fōt, <i>cherish</i> .
augeō, auxi, auct-, <i>increase</i> .	frigeō, frīxi, <i>be cold</i> .
caveō, cāvi, caut-, <i>care</i> .	fulgeō, fūlsi, <i>shine</i> .
censeō, cēnsui, cēns-, <i>value</i> .	gaudeō, gāvīsus sum, <i>rejoice</i> .
cieō, civi, cit-, <i>excite</i> .	haereō, haesi, haes-, <i>cling</i> .
doceō, docui, doct-, <i>teach</i> .	indulgeō, indūlsi, indult-, <i>indulge</i> .

iubeō, iūsi, iūss-, *order*.
 langueō, languī, *be faint*.
 liqueō, liquī (-liouī), *melt*.
 luceō, lūxi, -luet-, *shine*.
 lūgeō, lūxi, lūet-, *mourn*.
 maneō, mānsī, māns-, *wait*.
 misceō, -cui, mixt- (*mist*), *mix*.
 mordeō, momordi, mors-, *bite*.
 moveō, mōvi, mōt-, *move*.
 mulceō, mulaī, muls-, *soothe*.
 mulgeo, -si (-xi), mūls- (*mūlet*),
milk.
 nīveō, -nīvi (-nīxi), *wink*.
 paveō, pāvī, *fear*.
 pendeō, pependī, pēns-, *hang*.
 prandeō, prandī, prāns-, *dine*.
 rideō, risī, ris-, *laugh*.

sedeō, sēdī, sēss-, *sit*.
 soleō, solitus sum, *be wont*.
 sorbeō, sorbui (sorpai), sorpt-,
suck.
 spondeō, spopondī, spōns-,
pledge.
 strideō, stridī, *whiz*.
 suadeō, suāsī, suās-, *urge*.
 teneō (-tineō), tenuī, telet-, *hold*.
 tergeo, tērsī, tērs-, *wipe*.
 tondeō, totondī, tōns-, *shear*.
 torqueō, torsi, tort-, *twist*.
 torreo, torruī, tost-, *roast*.
 turgeo, tūrsī, *swell*.
 urgeō, ūrsī, *urge*.
 videō, vidī, vis-, *see*.
 voveō, vōvi, vōt-, *vow*.

NOTE.—The following have a perfect in -ui, but have no supine. A few (as *maereō, be sad*) have neither perfect nor supine.

arceō, *ward off*. egeō, *need*. pateō, *lie open*. studeō, *attend*.
 calleō, *be skilful*. floreō, *bloom*. sileō, *be silent*. timeō, *fear*.
 careō, *lack*. horreo, *shudder*. cāneo, *be white*.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *Active*, tegō, tegere; tēxi, tectum;
Passive, tegor, tegi, tectus sum.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Present.</i>			
tegō, <i>I cover</i> .	tegā	tegor	tegar
tegis, <i>you cover</i> .	tegās	tegeris (-re)	tegaris (-re)
tegit, <i>he covers</i> .	tegat	tegitur	tegitur
tegitur	tegāmur	tegitur	tegitur
tegitis	tegātis	tegitur	tegitur
tegnat	tegnant	tegitur	tegitur
<i>Imperfect.</i>			
tegebam	tegerem	tegebar	tegerer
tegebās	tegerēs	tegebāris (-re)	tegerēris (-re)
tegebat	tegeret	tegebātur	tegerētur
tegebāmur	tegerēmur	tegebāmur	tegerēmur
tegebātis	tegerētis	tegebāminī	tegerēminī
tegebant	tegerent	tegebantur	tegerentur

Third Conjugation.

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ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Future.</i>			
tegā		tegar	
tegēs		tegēris (-re)	
teget		tegētur	
tegēmus		tegēmur	
tegētis		tegēmini	
tegent		tegentur	
<i>Perfect.</i>			
tēxī	tēxerim	tēctus sum	tēctus sim
tēxistī	tēxeris	tēctus es	tēctus sis
tēxit	tēxerit	tēctus est	tēctus sit
tēximus	tēxerimus	tēcti sumus	tēcti simus
tēxistis	tēxeritis	tēcti estis	tēcti sitis
tēxērunt (-re)	tēxerint	tēcti sunt	tēcti sint
<i>Pluperfect.</i>			
tēxeram	tēxissem	tēctus eram	tēctus essem
tēxerās	tēxissēs	tēctus erās	tēctus essēs
tēxerat	tēxisset	tēctus erat	tēctus esset
tēxerāmus	tēxissēmus	tēcti erāmus	tēcti essēmus
tēxerātis	tēxissētis	tēcti erātis	tēcti essētis
tēxerant	tēxissent	tēcti erant	tēcti essent
<i>Future Perfect.</i>			
tēxerō		tēctus erō	
tēxeris		tēctus eris	
tēxerit		tēctus erit	
tēxerimus		tēcti erimus	
tēxeritis		tēcti eritis	
tēxerint		tēcti erunt	

IMPERATIVE.			
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2. tege, cover.	tegite	tegere	teginini
Fut. 2. tegitō	tegitōte	tegitōr	teguntor
3. tegitō	teguntō	tegitōr	

INFINITIVE.	
Pres. tegere	tegi
Perf. tēxisse	tēctus esse
Fut. tēctūrus esse	tēctum iri (tēctus fore)

PARTICIPLES.	
Pres. tegēs	Perf. tēctus
Fut. tēctūrus	Ger. tegendus (-andus)
GERUND: tegendī, -dō, -dum, -dū	
SUPINE: tēctum, tēctū	

*Etymology: Verbs.***Verbs in -iō.**

Verbs of the third conjugation in -iō have certain forms of the present stem like the fourth conjugation. They retain the *i* of the stem before *a*, *ō*, *u*, and *ē*, but lose it elsewhere except in the future and in the participle and gerund. Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows:—

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *capiō*, *capere*, *cēpi*, *captum*;
capior, *capī*, *captus sum*.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Present.</i>			
<i>capiō</i> , <i>I take.</i>	<i>capiam</i>	<i>capior</i>	<i>capiar</i>
<i>capis</i> , <i>you take.</i>	<i>capiās</i>	<i>caperis</i> (-re)	<i>capiāris</i> (-re)
<i>capit</i> , <i>he takes.</i>	<i>capiat</i>	<i>capitur</i>	<i>capiātur</i>
<i>capimus</i>	<i>capiāmus</i>	<i>capimur</i>	<i>capiāmur</i>
<i>capitis</i>	<i>capiātis</i>	<i>capiminī</i>	<i>capiāminī</i>
<i>capiunt</i>	<i>capiant</i>	<i>capiuntur</i>	<i>capiantur</i>
<i>Imperfect.</i>			
<i>capiebam</i>	<i>caperem</i>	<i>capiebar</i>	<i>caperer</i>
<i>Future.</i>			
<i>capiam</i>		<i>capiar</i>	
<i>capiās</i>		<i>capieris</i> (-re)	
<i>capiet</i> , etc.		<i>capietur</i> , etc.	
<i>Perfect.</i>			
<i>cēpi</i>	<i>cēperim</i>	<i>captus sum</i>	<i>captus sim</i>
<i>Pluperfect.</i>			
<i>cēperam</i>	<i>cēpissem</i>	<i>captus eram</i>	<i>captus essem</i>
<i>Future Perfect.</i>			
<i>cēperō</i>		<i>captus erō</i>	
IMPERATIVE.			
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
<i>Pres. 2. cape</i>	<i>capite</i>	<i>capere</i>	<i>capiminī</i>
<i>Fut. 2. capitō</i>	<i>capitōte</i>	<i>capitor</i>	—
<i>3. capitō</i>	<i>capiunto</i>	<i>capitor</i>	<i>capiuntor</i>
INFINITIVE.			
<i>Pres. capere</i>		<i>capī</i>	
<i>Perf. cēpisse</i>		<i>captus esse</i>	
<i>Fut. captūrus esse</i>		<i>captum iri</i>	
PARTICIPLES.			
<i>Pres. capiēs</i>		<i>Perf. captus</i>	
<i>Fut. captūrus</i>		<i>Ger. capiendus</i>	
GERUND: <i>capiendī</i> , -dō, -dum, -dō		SUPINE: <i>captum</i> , -tū	

NOTE. — Verbs of the third conjugation ending in -iō are the following: *cupiō*, *cupiō*, *faciō*, *fodiō*, *fugiō*, *iaciō*, *pariō*, *quatiō*, *rapīō*, *cupiō*, with compounds of -*cutiō*, -*liciō*, -*spiciō*. For their Principal Parts, see the lists in § 132.

132. The following lists include most simple verbs of the third conjugation, classed according to the formation of the perfect stem.

a. Forming the perfect stem in *s(x)* (§ 124. b and note): —

angō, *anxi*, *anct-*, *choke*.
carpō, *carpsi*, *carpt-*, *pluck*.
cēdō, *cēssi*, *cēss-*, *yield*.
cingō, *cinxi*, *cinct-*, *bind*.
clangō, *clanxi*, *sound*.
claudō, *clausi*, *claus-*, *shut*.
clepō, *clepsi*, *clept-*, *steal*.
cōmō, *cōmpsi*, *cōmpt-*, *comb, deck*.
coquō, *coxi*, *coct-*, *cook*.
-cutiō, *-cussi*, *-cuss-*, *shake*.
dēmō, *dēmpsi*, *dēmpt-*, *take away*.
dīcō, *dīxi*, *dict-*, *say*.
dīvidō, *dīvīsi*, *dīvī-*, *divide*.
dūcō, *dūxi*, *dūct-*, *guide*.
figō, *fixi*, *fix-*, *fix*.
figō [FIG], *finxi*, *fict-*, *fashion*.
flectō, *flexi*, *flex-*, *bend*.
fluō, *fluxi*, *flux-*, *flow*.
friendō, *frēsi*, *fress-*, *gnash*.
frigō, *frīxi*, *frict-* (*frī-*), *fry*.
gerō, *gessi*, *gest-*, *carry*.
laedō, *laesi*, *laes-*, *hurt*.
-liciō, *-lexi*, *-lect-*, *entice* (*ēlicui*,
-licit-).
lingō, *linxi*, *linct-*, *lick*.
lūdo, *lūsi*, *lūs-*, *play*.
mergō, *mēsi*, *mē-*, *plunge*.
mīttō, *mīsi*, *mī-*, *send*.
neotō [NEC], *nexi* (*nexui*), *nex-*,
to weave.
nūbō, *nūpsi*, *nūpt-*, *marry*.
pectō, *pexi* (*pexui*), *pex-*, *comb*.

pērgō, *perrēxi*, *perrēct-*, *go on*.
pingō [PIG], *pīuxi*, *pīct-*, *paint*.
plaudō, *plausi*, *plaus-*, *applaud*.
plectō, *plēxi* (*-xui*), *plex-*, *braid*.
premō, *pressi*, *press-*, *press*.
prōmō, *-mpsi*, *-mpt-*, *bring out*.
quatiō, (*-cussi*), *quass-*, *shake*.
rādō, *rāsi*, *rās-*, *scrape*.
regō, *rēxi*, *rēct-*, *rule*.
rēpō, *rēpsi*, *rēpt-*, *creep*.
rōdō, *rōsi*, *rōs-*, *gnaw*.
sarpō, *sarpsi*, *sarpt-*, *prune*.
scalpō, *scalpsi*, *scalpt-*, *scrape*.
scribō, *scripsi*, *script-*, *write*.
serpō, *serpsi*, *serpt-*, *crawl*.
spargō, *spāsi*, *spā-*, *scatter*.
-spiciō, *-spexi*, *-spect-*, *view*.
-stinguō, *-stinxi*, *-stinot-*, *quench*.
stringō, *strinxi*, *strict-*, *bind*.
struō, *strūxi*, *strūct-*, *build*.
sūmō, *sūmpsi*, *sūmpt-*, *take*.
surgō, *surrēxi*, *surrēct-*, *rise*.
tegō, *tēxi*, *tēct-*, *shelter*.
temnō, *tempsi*, *-tempt-*, *despise*.
tergō, *tēsi*, *tē-*, *wipe*.
tingō, *tīxi*, *tīct-*, *stain*.
trahō, *trāxi*, *trāct-*, *drag*.
trūdō, *trūsi*, *trūs-*, *thrust*.
ūrō, *ūssi*, *ūst-*, *burn*.
vādō, *-vāsi*, *-vās-*, *go*.
vehō, *vēxi*, *veot-*, *draw*.
vivō, *vīxi*, *vīct-*, *live*.

b. Reduplicated in the perfect (§ 124. c):—

cadō, cecidī, cecidī, <i>fall.</i>	pariō, peperī, par- (paritūrus), <i>bring forth.</i>
caedō, cecidī, cecidī, <i>cut.</i>	pellō, pepulī, pulsa-, <i>drive.</i>
canō, cecini, cant-, <i>sing.</i>	pendō, pependī, pēns-, <i>weigh.</i>
currō, cucurri, curs-, <i>run.</i>	poscō, poposci, (poscitūrus), <i>demand.</i>
discō [DIC], didici, (discitūrus), <i>learn.</i>	pungō [PUG], pupugī, pūnot-, <i>prick.</i>
didō, -didī, -dit- (as in ab-dō, etc., with crēdō, vēndō), put [DHA].	sistō [STA], stitī, stat-, <i>stop.</i>
fallō, fefelli, fals-, <i>deceive.</i>	tangō [TAG], tetigī, tāct-, <i>touch.</i>
pangō [PAG], pēgi (pepigī), pāct-, <i>fasten, fix, bargain.</i>	tendō [TEN], tetendi (-tendi), tēns- (tent-), <i>stretch.</i> [beat.
parcō, parsi, peperci, parcit- (pars-), <i>spare.</i>	tundō [TUD], tutudi, tūns- (-tūns-),

c. Adding u (v) to the verb-root (§ 124. a):—

alō, alui, alit- (alit-), <i>nourish.</i>	pāscō, pāvi, pāst-, <i>feed.</i>
cernō, -crēvi, -orēt-, <i>decree.</i>	percellō, -ouli, -cula-, <i>upset.</i>
colō, colui, cult-, <i>dwell, till.</i>	pōnō [POS], posui, posit-, <i>put.</i>
compescō, compescui, <i>restrain.</i>	quiescō, quievi, quiet-, <i>rest.</i>
cōnsulō, -lui, cōnsult-, <i>consult.</i>	rapō, rapui, rapt-, <i>seize.</i>
crēscō, crēvi, crēt-, <i>increase.</i>	sciscō, scivi, scit-, <i>decree.</i>
-cumbō [CUB], cubui, cubit-, <i>lie</i> <i>down.</i>	serō, sēvi, sat-, <i>sow.</i>
depsō, depui, depst-, <i>knead.</i>	serō, serui, sert-, <i>entwine.</i>
excellō, -cellui, -cel-, <i>excel.</i>	sinō, sivi, sit-, <i>permit.</i>
fremō, fremui, fremit-, <i>roar.</i>	spērō, sprēvi, sprēt-, <i>scorn.</i>
furō, furui, rage.	sternō, strāvi, strāt-, <i>strew.</i>
gemō, genui, gemit-, <i>groan.</i>	stertō, stertui (sterti), <i>snore.</i>
gignō [GEN], genui, genit-, <i>beget.</i>	strepō, strepui, strepit-, <i>sound.</i>
metō, messui, mess-, <i>reap.</i>	-suēscō, -suēvi, -suēt-, <i>be wont.</i>
molō, molui, molit-, <i>grind.</i>	texō, texui, text-, <i>weave.</i>
occulō, occului, occult-, <i>hide.</i>	tremō, tremui, tremble.
	vomō, vomui, vomit-, <i>vomit.</i>

d. Adding iv to the verb-root (cf. § 124. f):—

arcessō, -ivi, arcessit-, <i>summon.</i>	petō, petivi, petīt-, <i>seek.</i>
capessō, capessivi, <i>undertake.</i>	quaerō, quaeivi, quaeit-, <i>seek</i>
cupiō, cupivi, cupit-, <i>desire.</i>	rudō, rudivi, rudīt-, <i>bray.</i>
incoessō, incoessivi, <i>attack.</i>	sapiō, sapivi (sapui), <i>be wise</i>
lacessō, lacessivi, lacessit-, <i>pro-</i>	terō, trivi, trīt-, <i>rub.</i>

e. Lengthening the vowel of the root (cf. § 124. d):—

agō, ēgī, āot-, <i>drive</i> .	lavō, lāvī, lōt- (laut-), <i>wash</i> (also reg. of 1st conj.).
capiō, cōpī, capt-, <i>take</i> .	legō, ¹ lēgī, lēct-, <i>gather</i> .
edō, ēdī, ēsum, <i>eat</i> (see § 140).	linō [LI], lēvī (līvī), lit-, <i>smear</i> .
emō, ēmī, empt-, <i>buy</i> .	linquō [LIC], -liquī, -liot-, <i>leave</i> .
faciō, fēcī, fact-, <i>make</i> (see § 142).	nōscō [GNO], nōvī, nōt- (cō-gnit-, a-gnit-, ad-gnit-), <i>know</i> .
fodiō, fōdī, fōss-, <i>dig</i> .	rumpō [RUP], rūpī, rupt-, <i>burst</i> .
frangō [FRAG], frēgī, frāct-, <i>break</i> .	scabō, scābī, <i>scratch</i> .
fugiō, fūgī, fugit-, <i>flee</i> .	vincō [VIC], vici, viciot-, <i>conquer</i> .
fundō [FUD], fūdī, fūs-, <i>pour</i> .	
iaciō, iēcī, iact-, <i>throw</i> , (-iciō, -lect-).	

f. Retaining the present stem or verb-root (cf. § 124. e):—

arguō, -uī, -ūtum, <i>accuse</i> .	pīnō, -sī, pīna- (pīnat-, pīst-), <i>bruise</i>
bibō, bibī, bibit-, <i>drink</i> .	prehendō, -dī, prehēna-, <i>seize</i> .
-cendō, -cendī, -cēns, <i>kindle</i> .	ruō, rūī, rut- (ruit-), <i>fall</i> .
cūdō, -cūdī, -cūs-, <i>forge</i> .	scandō, scandī, scāns-, <i>climb</i> .
facessō, facessī, facessit-, <i>excite</i> .	scindō [SCID], scidi, ² sciss-, <i>tear</i> .
-fendō, -fendī, -fēns-, <i>ward off</i> .	sīdō, sīdī (sēdī), -sēss-, <i>settle</i> .
findō [FID], fidī, ² fiss-, <i>split</i> .	solvō, solvī, solūt-, <i>loose, pay</i> .
icō, icī, ict-, <i>hit</i> .	stridō, stridī, <i>whiz</i> .
lambō, lambī, lambit-, <i>lap</i> .	vellō, vellī (vulsī), vula-, <i>pluck</i> .
luō, luī, luit-, <i>wash</i> .	verrō, verri, versa-, <i>sweep</i> .
mandō, mandī, māns-, <i>chew</i> .	vertō, vertī, versa-, <i>turn</i> .
nuō, nuī, nuit-, <i>nod</i> .	visō [VID], visi, vis-, <i>visit</i> .
pandō, pandī, pāns- (pass-), <i>open</i> .	volvō, volvī, volūt-, <i>turn</i> .

NOTE.—The following have no perfect or supine:—

claudō, <i>limp</i> .	hiscō, <i>yawn</i> .
fatiscō, <i>gape</i> .	rabō, <i>rave</i> .
fulgō, <i>flash</i> .	tolō (sustulī, sublātum supplied from sufferō), <i>raise</i> .
gliscō, <i>swell</i> .	vergō, <i>incline</i> .
glūbō, <i>peel</i> .	

¹ The following compounds of legō have -lēxi: diligō, intelligō, negligō.

² In these the perfect stem is the same as the verb-root, having lost the reduplication (§ 124. c. note).

Etymology: Verbs.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *Active*, audiō, audīre, audīvī, auditum;
Passive, audior, audīrī, auditus sum.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Present.</i>			
audiō, <i>I hear.</i>	audiam	audior	audiar
audīs, <i>you hear.</i>	audiās	audīris (-re)	audiāris (-re)
audit, <i>he hears.</i>	audiat	audītur	audiātur
audīmus	audiāmus	audīmur	audiāmur
audītis	audiātis	audīmini	audiāmini
audiunt	audiant	audiuntur	audiantur
<i>Imperfect.</i>			
audiēbam	audīrem	audiēbar	audīrer
audiēbās	audīrēs	audiēbāris (-re)	audīrēris (-re)
audiēbat	audīret	audiēbātur	audīrētur
audiēbāmus	audīrēmus	audiēbāmur	audīrēmur
audiēbātis	audīrētis	audiēbāmini	audīrēmini
audiēbant	audīrent	audiēbantur	audīrentur
<i>Future.</i>			
audiam		audiar	
audīs		audīris (-re)	
audiet		audītur	
audīemus		audīemur	
audīētis		audīēmini	
audient		audientur	
<i>Perfect.</i>			
audīvī	audiverim	auditus sum	auditus sim
audīvisti	audiveris	auditus es	auditus sis
audīvit	audiverit	auditus est	auditus sit
audīvimus	audiverimus	auditi sumus	auditi simus
audīvistis	audiveritis	auditi estis	auditi sitis
audīverunt (-re)	audiverint	auditi sunt	auditi sint
<i>Pluperfect.</i>			
audiveram	audivissem	auditus eram	auditus essem
audiverās	audivissēs	auditus erās	auditus essēs
audiverat	audivisset	auditus erat	auditus esset
audiverāmus	audivissemus	auditi erāmus	auditi essemus
audiverātis	audivissetis	auditi erātis	auditi essētis
audiverant	audivissent	auditi erant	auditi essent

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Future Perfect.</i>			
audiverō		auditus erō	
audiveris		auditus eris	
audiverit		auditus erit	
audiverimus		auditi erimus	
audiveritis		auditi eritis	
audiverint		auditi erunt	
<i>IMPERATIVE.</i>			
SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Pres. 2. audī	audīte	audīre	audīmini
Fut. 2. audītō	audītōte	audītor	—
3. audītō	audiuntō	audītor	audiuntor
<i>INFINITIVE.</i>			
Pres. audīre		audīrī	
Perf. audīvisse		audītus esse	
Fut. audītūrus esse		audītum irī (audītus fore)	
<i>PARTICIPLES.</i>			
Pres. audiēns		Perf. audītus	
Fut. audītūrus		Ger. audiendus	
<i>GERUND.</i>		<i>SUPINE.</i>	
audiendī, -dō, -dum, -dō		audītum, audītū	

133. There are — besides a few deponents and some regular derivatives in -ūriō, as *ēauriō*, *be hungry* (cf. § 167. *e*) — about 60 verbs of this conjugation, a large proportion of them being *descriptive* verbs: like —

<i>orōciō</i> , <i>croak.</i>	<i>ganniō</i> , <i>yelp.</i>	<i>hirriō</i> , <i>snarl.</i>	<i>scatūriō</i> , <i>gush.</i>
<i>ōūcūriō</i> , <i>crow.</i>	<i>glūtiō</i> , <i>gulp.</i>	<i>mūgiō</i> , <i>bellow.</i>	<i>tinniō</i> , <i>tinkle.</i>
<i>šbulliō</i> , <i>bubble.</i>	<i>grunniō</i> , <i>grunt.</i>	<i>muttiō</i> , <i>mutter.</i>	<i>tussiō</i> , <i>cough.</i>
<i>fritinniō</i> , <i>twitter.</i>	<i>hinniō</i> , <i>neigh.</i>	<i>singultiō</i> , <i>hiccup.</i>	<i>vāgiō</i> , <i>cry.</i>

Those verbs not conjugated regularly like *audiō*, are the following:

<i>amiciō</i> , <i>amixī</i> (-ouī), <i>amict-</i> , <i>fulciō</i> , <i>fulsī</i> , <i>fult-</i> , <i>prop.</i>	
<i>clothe.*</i>	<i>hauriō</i> , <i>hausī</i> , <i>haust-</i> (<i>haus-</i>),
<i>aperiō</i> , <i>aperuī</i> , <i>apert-</i> , <i>open.</i>	<i>drain.*</i>
<i>comperiō</i> , <i>perī</i> , <i>compert-</i> , <i>find.</i>	<i>operiō</i> , <i>operuī</i> , <i>opert-</i> , <i>cover.</i>
<i>farciō</i> , <i>farsī</i> , <i>farct-</i> (-tum), <i>stuff.</i>	<i>rauciō</i> , <i>rausī</i> , <i>raus-</i> , <i>be hoarse.</i>
<i>feriō</i> , <i>strike</i> (no perfect or supine).	<i>reperiō</i> , <i>repperī</i> , <i>reper-</i> , <i>find.</i>

saeptiō , saepti , saept , <i>hedge in.</i>	sarriō , -ivī (-ui), -itum , <i>hoe.</i>
salīō (-iliō), salui (salii), salt (-ult-), <i>leap.</i>	sentiō , sēnsi , sēns , <i>feel.</i>
sanciō [SAC], saxi , sanct , <i>sanc-tion.</i>	sepeliō , sepelivī , sepult , <i>bury.</i>
sarciō , sarsi , sart , <i>patch.</i>	singultiō , -ivī , singultum , <i>sob.</i>
	veniō , vēni , vent , <i>come.</i>
	vinciō , vinxi , vinot , <i>bind.</i>

The following are regular in the perfect, but have no supine stem. —

caecutiō , <i>be furblind.</i>	gestiō , <i>be overjoyed.</i>
dēmentiō , <i>be mad.</i>	glōciō , <i>cluck</i> (as a hen).
ferōciō <i>be fierce.</i>	ineptiō , <i>play the trifler.</i>

Parallel Forms.

134. Many verbs have more than one set of forms, of which only one is generally found in classic use: as, —

lavō , lavāre or lavēre , <i>wash</i> (see § 132. e).
scateō , scatēre or scatēre , <i>gush forth.</i>
lūdicō , -āre or lūdicor , -ārī , <i>mock.</i>
fulgō , fulgēre or fulgēō , fulgēre , <i>shine.</i>

DEPONENT VERBS.

135. Deponent Verbs have the form of the Passive Voice, with an active or reflexive signification: as, —

1st conj. mīror , mīrārī , mīrātus , <i>admire.</i>
2d conj. vereor , verērī , verītus , <i>fear.</i>
3d conj. sequor , sequī , seqūtus , <i>follow.</i>
4th conj. partior , partīrī , partītus , <i>share.</i>

INDICATIVE.

	I.	II.	III.	IV.
Pres.	mīror	vereor	sequor	partior
	mīrārīs (-re)	verērīs (-re)	sequerīs (-re)	partīrīs (-re)
	mīrātur	verētur	sequitur	partītur
	mīrāmur	verēmur	sequimur	partīmur
	mīrāminī	verēminī	sequiminī	partīminī
	mīrantur	verentur	sequuntur	partīuntur
Impf.	mīrābar	verēbar	sequēbar	partīēbar
Fut.	mīrābor	verēbor	sequar	partiar
Perf.	mīrātus sum	verītus sum	secūtus sum	partītus sum
Plup.	mīrātus eram	verītus eram	secūtus eram	partītus eram
F. P.	mīrātus erō	verītus erō	secūtus erō	partītus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE.

I.	II.	III.	IV.
<i>Pres.</i> mīrer	verear	sequar	partiar
<i>Impf.</i> mīrārer	verērer	sequerer	partīrer
<i>Perf.</i> mīrātus sim	veritus sim	secūtus sim	partītus sim
<i>Plup.</i> mīrātus essem	veritus essem	secūtus essem	partītus essem

IMPERATIVE.

mīrāre, -itor, etc. verēre, -itor sequere, -itor partīre, -itor

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> mīrārī	verērī	sequī	partīrī
<i>Perf.</i> mīrātus esse	veritus esse	secūtus esse	partītus esse
<i>Fut.</i> mīrātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	secūtūrus esse	partītūrus esse

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Pres.</i> mīrāns	verēns	sequēns	partiēns
<i>Fut.</i> mīrātūrus	veritūrus	secūtūrus	partītūrus
<i>Perf.</i> mīrātus	veritus	secūtus	partītus
<i>Ger.</i> mīrandus	verendus	sequendus	partiendus

GERUND.

mīrandī, -ō, etc. verendī, etc. sequendī, etc. partiendī, etc.

SUPINE.

mīrātum, -tū veritum, -tū secūtum, -tū partītum, -tū

a. Deponents have the participles of both voices: as, —

sequēns, following. secūtūrus, about to follow.
secūtus, having followed. sequendus, to-be-followed.

b. The perfect participle generally has an active sense, but in verbs otherwise deponent it is often passive: as, *mercātus, bought; adeptus, gained (or having gained).*

c. The future infinitive is always in the active form: thus, *sequor* has *secūtūrus esse* (not *secūtum īrī*).

d. The gerundive, being passive in meaning, is found only in transitive verbs, or neuter verbs used impersonally: as, —

hōc cōnfitendum est, this must be acknowledged.
moriendum est omnibus, all must die.

e. Most deponents are neuter or reflexive in meaning, corresponding to what in Greek is called the Middle Voice (§ 111. a).

f. Some deponents are occasionally used in a passive sense: as, *crīminor, I accuse, or I am accused.*

g. About twenty verbs are, with an active meaning, found in both active and passive forms: as, *mereō or mereor, I deserve*.

h. More than half of all deponents are of the First Conjugation, and all of these are regular. The following deponents are irregular:—

adsentior , -īrī, adsēnsus , <i>assent</i> .	nāscor , -ī, nātus , <i>be born</i> .
apiscor , (-ip-), -ī, aptus (-eptus), <i>get</i> .	nitor , -ī, nīsus (nīxus), <i>strive</i> .
dēfētiscor , -ī, -fessus, <i>faint</i> .	oblīviscor , -ī, oblītus , <i>forget</i> .
expērgiscor , -ī, perrēctus , <i>rouse</i> .	opperior , -īrī, oppertus , <i>await</i> .
experior , -īrī, expertus , <i>try</i> .	ōrdior , -īrī, ōrsus , <i>begin</i> .
fateor , -ērī, fassus , <i>confess</i> .	orior (3d), -īrī, ortus , (oritūrus), <i>rise</i> .
fatiscor , -ī, <i>gape</i> .	paciscor , -ī, pāctus , <i>bargain</i> .
fruor , -ī, fructus (fruitus), <i>enjoy</i> .	patior (-petior), -ī, passus (-pesus), <i>suffer</i> .
fungor , -ī, fūctus , <i>fulfil</i> .	-plector , -ī, -plexus , <i>clasp</i> .
gradior (-gredior), -ī, gressus , <i>step</i> .	proficiscor , -ī, profectus , <i>set-out</i> .
īrāscor , -ī, īrātus , <i>be angry</i> .	queror , -ī, questus , <i>complain</i> .
lābor , -ī, lāpsus , <i>fall</i> .	reor , rērī , ratus , <i>think</i> .
loquor , -ī, locūtus (loquūtus), <i>speak</i> .	revertor , -ī, reversus , <i>return</i> .
-miniscor , -ī, -mentus , <i>think</i> .	ringor , -ī, rictus , <i>snarl</i> .
mētior , -īrī, mēnsus , <i>measure</i> .	sequor , -ī, secūtus (sequūtus), <i>follow</i> .
moriōr , -ī (-īrī), mortuus (mortūrus), <i>die</i> .	tueor , -ērī, tuitus (tutus), <i>defend</i> .
nanciscor , -ī, nactus (nanctus), <i>find</i> .	ulciscor , -ī, ultus , <i>avenge</i> .
	ūtōr , -ī, ūsus , <i>use, employ</i> .

NOTE.—The deponent **comperior**, -īrī, **compertus**, is rarely found for **comperiō**. **Revertor**, until the time of Augustus, had regularly the active forms in the perfect system, **reverti**, **reverteram**, etc.

i The following deponents have no supine stem:—

dēvertor , -tī, <i>turn aside</i> (to lodge).	medeor , -ērī, <i>heal</i> .
diffiteor , -ērī, <i>deny</i> .	reminiscor , -ī, <i>call to mind</i> .
liquor , -ī, <i>melt</i> (neut.).	vescor , -ī, <i>feed upon</i> .

NOTE.—Deponents are only passive (or middle) verbs whose active has disappeared. There is hardly one that does not show at some period of the language signs of being used in the active.

Semi-Deponents.

136. A few verbs having no perfect stem are regular in the present, but appear in the tenses of completed action as deponents. These are called *semi-deponents* or *neuter passives*. They are:—

audēō , audēre , ausus , <i>dare</i> .	gaudeō , gaudēre , gāvīsus , <i>rejoice</i> .
fidēō , fidēre , fīsus , <i>trust</i> .	soleō , solēre , solītus , <i>be wont</i> .

a. From *audēō* there is an old subjunctive perfect *ausim*. The form *sōdēs* (for *sī audēs*), *an thou wilt*, is frequent in the dramatists and rare elsewhere.

b. The active forms *vāpulō*, *vāpulāre*, *be flogged*, and *vēneō*, *vēnīre*, *be sold* (contracted from *vēnum īre*, *go to sale*), have a passive meaning, and are sometimes called *neutral passives*. To these may be added *fieri*, *to be made* (see § 142), and *exulāre*, *to be banished* (live in exile).

NOTE.—The following verbs are sometimes found as semi-deponents: *iūrō*, *iūrāre*, *iūrātus*, *swear*; *nūbō*, *nūbere*, *nūpta*, *marry*; *placeō*, *placēre*, *placitus*, *please*.

[For the regular Derivative Forms of Verbs, see § 167.]

IRREGULAR VERBS.

137. Several verbs add some of the personal endings of the present system directly to the root, or combine two verbs in their inflection. These are called Irregular Verbs (cf. p. 86). They are *sum*, *volō*, *ferō*, *edō*, *queō*, *eō*, *fiō*, and their compounds.

Sum has already been inflected in § 119.

a. *Sum* is compounded without any change of inflection with the prepositions *ab*, *ad*, *dē*, *in*, *inter*, *ob*, *prae*, *prō* (*prōd*), *sub*, *super*.

In the compound *prōsum*, *prō* retains its original *d* before *e*. Thus,—

	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>prōsum</i> , <i>I help</i> .	<i>prōsim</i>
	<i>prōdes</i>	<i>prōsis</i>
	<i>prōdest</i>	<i>prōsit</i>
	<i>prōsumus</i>	<i>prōsimus</i>
	<i>prōdestis</i>	<i>prōstis</i>
	<i>prōsunt</i>	<i>prōsint</i>
<i>Imp.</i>	<i>prōderam</i> , <i>I was helping</i> .	<i>prōdessem</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>prōderō</i> , <i>I shall help</i> .	
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>prōtuī</i> , <i>I helped</i> .	<i>prōfuerim</i>
<i>Plupf.</i>	<i>prōfueram</i> , <i>I had helped</i> .	<i>prōfuissem</i>
<i>F. P.</i>	<i>prōfuerō</i> , <i>I shall have helped</i> .	
IMPER.	<i>prōdes</i> , <i>prōdestō</i> , etc.	
INFIN. <i>Pres.</i>	<i>prōdesse</i>	<i>Perf. prōfuisse</i>
PART.	<i>prōtutārus</i> , <i>about to help</i> .	<i>Fut. prōfutūrus esse</i>

8. *Sum* is also compounded with the adjective *potis*, or *pote*, *able*, making the verb *possum*. This is inflected as follows:—

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
<i>Pres.</i>	<i>possum, I can.</i>	<i>possim</i>
	<i>potes, you can.</i>	<i>possis</i>
	<i>potest, he can.</i>	<i>possit</i>
	<i>possumus, we can.</i>	<i>possimus</i>
	<i>potestis, you can.</i>	<i>possitis</i>
	<i>possunt, they can.</i>	<i>possint</i>
<i>Imp.</i>	<i>poteram, I could.</i>	<i>possem</i>
<i>Fut.</i>	<i>poterō, I shall be able.</i>	
<i>Perf.</i>	<i>potui, I could.</i>	<i>potuerim</i>
<i>Plupf.</i>	<i>potueram</i>	<i>potuisssem</i>
<i>F. P.</i>	<i>potuerō, I shall have been able.</i>	
INFIN. <i>Pres.</i>	<i>posse</i>	<i>Perf. potuisse</i>
PART.	<i>potēns (adj.), powerful.</i>	

NOTE.—The forms *potis sum*, *pote sum*, etc., occur in early writers. Other early forms are *potesse*; *possiem*, -ēs, -et; *poterint*, *potērit* (for *possit*); *potestur* (with pass. inf. cf. § 143. a).

138. *Volō* and its compounds are inflected as follows:—

volō, velle, volui, wish.

nōlō (for *nē volō*), *nōlle, nōlui, be unwilling.*

mālō (for *magis* or *mage volō*), *mälle, mālui, wish rather, prefer.*

		<i>Present.</i>			
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>volō</i>	<i>velim</i>	<i>nōlō</i>	<i>nōlim</i>	<i>mālō</i>	<i>mālim</i>
<i>vis</i>	<i>velis</i>	<i>nōnvīs</i>	<i>nōlis</i>	<i>māvis</i>	<i>mālis</i>
<i>velit (vult)</i>	<i>velit</i>	<i>nōnvolt</i>	<i>nōlit</i>	<i>māvult</i>	<i>mālit</i>
<i>volumus</i>	<i>velimus</i>	<i>nōlumus</i>	<i>nōlimus</i>	<i>mālumus</i>	<i>mālimus</i>
<i>vultis (vul-)</i>	<i>velitis</i>	<i>nōnvultis</i>	<i>nōlitis</i>	<i>māvultis</i>	<i>mālitis</i>
<i>volunt</i>	<i>velint</i>	<i>nōlunt</i>	<i>nōlint</i>	<i>mālunt</i>	<i>mālint</i>
		<i>Imperfect.</i>			
<i>volēbam</i>	<i>vellem</i>	<i>nōlēbam</i>	<i>nōllem</i>	<i>mālēbam</i>	<i>māllem</i>
		<i>Future.</i>			
<i>volam</i>		<i>nōlam</i>		<i>mālam</i>	
<i>volēs, etc.</i>		<i>nōlēs, etc.</i>		<i>mālēs, etc.</i>	
		<i>Perfect.</i>			
<i>volui</i>	<i>voluerim</i>	<i>nōlui</i>	<i>nōluerim</i>	<i>mālui</i>	<i>māluerim</i>
		<i>Pluperfect.</i>			
<i>volueram</i>	<i>voluisssem</i>	<i>nōlueram</i>	<i>nōluisssem</i>	<i>mālueram</i>	<i>māluisssem</i>
		<i>Future Perfect.</i>			
<i>voluerō</i>		<i>nōluerō</i>		<i>māluerō</i>	

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	nōli	nōlite, do not.
Fut.	nōlitō	nōlitōte, thou shalt not, ye shall not.
	nōlitō	

INFINITIVE.

velle	voluisse	nōlle	nōluisse	mālle	māluisse
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PARTICIPLES.

Pres. volēns, willing.	nōlēns, unwilling.
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GERUND.

volendī (late)

NOTE.—The forms *sīs* for *sī vīs*, *sūltis* for *sī vultis*, and the forms *nē volō*, *nēvīs* (*nē-vīs*), *mage volō*, *māvolo*, etc., occur in early writers.

139. Ferō, ferre, tūli, lātum,¹ bear.

ACTIVE.

	INDIC.	SUBJ.
Pres.	ferō	feram
	fers	ferās
	fert	ferat
	ferimus	ferāmus
	fertis	ferātis
	ferunt	ferant
Impf.	ferēbam	ferrem
Fut.	feram	
Perf.	tūli	tulerim
Plup.	tuleram	tulissem
F. P.	tulerō	

PASSIVE.

	INDIC.	SUBJ.
	feror	ferar
	ferris	ferāris (-re)
	fertur	ferātur
	ferimur	ferāmur
	ferimini	ferāmini
	feruntur	ferantur
	ferēbar	ferrer
	ferar	
	lātus sum	lātus sim
	lātus eram	lātus essem
	lātus erō	

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	fer	ferite	ferre	ferimini
Fut.	fertō	fertōte	fertor	—
	fertō	feruntō	fertor	feruntor

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	ferre	ferri
Perf.	tulisse	lātus esse
Fut.	lāturus esse	lātum iri (lātus fore)

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.	ferēns	Perf.	lātus
Fut.	lāturus	Ger.	ferendus

GERUND: ferendī, -dō, -dum, -dō SUPINE: lātum, -tū

¹ The perfect *tulī* is for *tetulī* (which sometimes occurs), from *TUL*, root of *tollō*: the supine *lātum* is for *ttlātum* (cf. *λάρδα*).

140. *Edo, edere, edi, esum, eat*, is regular of the third conjugation, but has also some forms directly from the root (ED) without the characteristic vowel. These are in full-faced type.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
edo	edam (edim)	edor	edar
edis (ēa)	edās (edis)	ederis (-re)	edāris (-re)
edit (ēat)	edat (edit)	editur (ēatur)	edātur
edimus	edāmus* (edimus)	edimur	edāmur
editis (ēatis)	edātis (editis)	edimini	edāmini
edunt	edant (edint)	eduntur	edantur
<i>Imperfect.</i>			
edēbam	ederem (ēssem)	edēbar	ederer
edēbās	ederes (ēsās)	edēbāris (-re)	ederēris (-re)
edēbat	ederet (ēsset)	edēbātur	ederētur (ēssetur)

<i>Future.</i>	
edam	edar
edis	edēris
edit, etc.	edētur, etc.

<i>Perfect.</i>	
ēdi	ēderim
<i>Pluperfect.</i>	
ēderam	ēdissem
<i>Future Perfect.</i>	
ēderō	ēderis

<i>IMPERATIVE.</i>			
ede (ēa)	edite (ēate)	edere	edimini
editō (ēatō)	editōte (ēatōte)	editor	—
editō (ēatō)	eduntō	editor	eduntor

<i>INFINITIVE.</i>	
edere (ēare)	edi
	ēsus esse
	ēsum iri

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. edēs

Fut. ēsirus

Pres. ēsus

Gen. edendus

GERUND.

edendi, -dū, -dum, -dō

SUPINE.

ēdū, -itū

141. *IRE, ire, ivi, itum, go.*¹

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
<i>Pres. S.</i>	<i>eō, is, it</i>	<i>eam, eās, eat</i>	
<i>P</i>	<i>imus, itis, eunt</i>	<i>eāmus, eātis, eant</i>	
<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>ibam, ibās, ibat</i>	<i>irem, irēs, iret</i>	
	<i>ibāmus, ibātis, ibant</i>	<i>irēmus, irētis, irent</i>	
<i>Future.</i>	<i>ibō, ibis, ibit</i>		
	<i>ibimus, ibitis, ibunt</i>		
<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>ivi (II)</i>	<i>iverim (ierim)</i>	
<i>Pluperf.</i>	<i>iveram (ieram)</i>	<i>ivissem (issem)</i>	
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	<i>iverō (ierō)</i>		

IMPERATIVE

I, ite, itō, itō, itōte, euntō

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ire Perf. ivisse (isse) Fut. itūrus esse

PARTICIPLES.

Pres. iēns, euntis Fut. itūrus Ger. eundum

GERUND: *eundi, -dō, -dum, -dō* SUPINE: *itum, itū*

a. The compounds *adeō, approach, ineō, enter*, and some others are transitive. They are inflected as follows in the passive:—

INDIC.		SUBJ.	
<i>Pres. adeor</i>	<i>Imperf. adībar</i>	<i>Pres. adear</i>	
<i>adīris</i>	<i>Fut. adībor</i>	<i>Imperf. adīrer</i>	
<i>adītur</i>	<i>Perf. aditus sum</i>	<i>Perf. aditus sim</i>	
<i>adīmur</i>	<i>Plup. aditus eram</i>	<i>Plup. aditus essem</i>	
<i>adīmini</i>	<i>F. P. aditus erō</i>	INFIN. <i>adiri, aditus esse</i>	
<i>adeuntur</i>		PART. <i>aditus adeundus</i>	

Thus inflected, the forms of *eō* are used impersonally in the third person singular of the passive: *as, itūrus est* (§ 146 d). The infinitive *iri* is used with the supine in *um* to make the future infinitive passive (§ 147. c. 1). The verb *vāneō, be sold* (i.e. *vānum eō, go to sale*), has also several forms in the passive.

b. In the perfect system of *eō* the forms without *v* are more common, and in the compounds are regular: *as, adī, adieram, aditūe (adīte)*.

c. The compound *ambī* is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation. But it has also *ambibat* in the imperfect indicative

d. *Prō* with *eō* retains its original *d*: *as, prōdeō, prōdēs, prōdit*.

¹ Root *I*, cf. *ies*; the *e* stands for *ei*, lengthened form of the root *I*.

142. *Faciō, facere, fēcī, factum, make*, is regular. But it has imperative *fac* in the active, and besides the regular forms the future perfect *faxō*, perfect subjunctive *faxim*. The passive of *faciō* is —

fiō, fieri, factus sum, be made, or become.

The tenses of the first stem of *fiō* are regular of the fourth conjugation, but the subjunctive imperfect is *fierem*, and the infinitive *fieri*.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
<i>Pres. S.</i>	<i>fiō, fis, fit</i>	<i>fiam, fias, fiat</i>
<i>P.</i>	<i>simus, sitis, fiunt</i>	<i>fiamus, fiatīs, fiant</i>
<i>Imperf.</i>	<i>fiēbam, fiēbās, etc.</i>	<i>fierem, fierēs, etc.</i>
<i>Future.</i>	<i>fiam, fiēs, etc.</i>	
<i>Perfect.</i>	<i>factus sum</i>	<i>factus sim</i>
<i>Pluperf.</i>	<i>factus eram</i>	<i>factus essem</i>
<i>Fut. Perf.</i>	<i>factus erō</i>	
IMPER.	<i>fi, fite, fitō, fitōte, fiuntō</i>	
INFIN.	<i>Pres. fieri</i>	<i>Perf. factus esse</i>
PART.	<i>Perf. factus</i>	<i>Ger. faciendus</i>

a. Most compounds of *faciō* with prepositions change *ā* to *f* (ent stem), or *ō* (supine stem), and are inflected regularly: as, —

cōnficiō, cōnficere, cōnfēcī, cōnfectus, finish.
cōnficior, cōnfici, cōnfectus.

b. Other compounds retain *a*, and have *-fiō* in the passive: as, *benefaciō, facere, -fēcī, -factum*; pass. *benefiō, -fieri, -factus, benefit*. These retain the accent of the simple verb: as, *benefā'cia* (§ 19. d).

c. A few isolated forms of *-fiō* occur in other compounds: viz., —

<i>cōnfīt, it happens.</i>	<i>dēfīt, it lacks.</i>	<i>Infīt, he begins (to speak).</i>
<i>cōnfiet</i>	<i>dēfiant</i>	<i>Infiant</i>
<i>cōnfiat</i>	<i>dēfiet</i>	<i>effieri, to be effected.</i>
<i>cōnfieret</i>	<i>dēfiat</i>	<i>interfieri, to perish.</i>
<i>cōnfieri</i>	<i>dēfieri</i>	<i>interfiat, let him perish.</i>

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

143. Some verbs have lost their Present stem, and use only tenses of the Perfect, in which they are inflected regularly. These are —

a. *Coepi*,¹ *I began*; Inf. *coepisse*; Fut. Part. *coepturus*; Perf. Pass. Part. *coeptus*.

The passive is used with the passive infinitive: as, *coeptus sum vocārī*, *I began to be called*, but *coepi vocāre*, *I began to call* (cf. § 144. g, note). For the present *incipiō* is used.

b. *Ōdi*, *I hate*;² perfect participle *ōsus*, *hating or hated* (*perōsus*, *utterly hateful*), future participle *ōsūrus*, *likely to hate*.

c. *Memini*, *I remember*;³ with the Imperative *mementō*, *mementōte*; Part. *meminēns*.

NOTE.—*Ōdi* and *memini* have a perfect form with a present meaning, and are called *preteritive verbs*. *Nōvi* and *cōnuēvi* (usually referred to *nōscō* and *cōnuēscō*) are often used in the sense of *I know* (have learned), and *I am accustomed* (have become accustomed), as preteritive verbs. Many other verbs are occasionally used in the same way (see § 279. Remark).

144. Many verbs are found only in the present system. Such are *maereō*, *-ēre*, *be sorrowful* (cf. *maestus*, *sad*); *feriō*, *-īre*, *strike*.

In many the simple verb is incomplete, but the missing parts occur in its compounds: as, *vādō*, *vādere*, *invāsi*, *invāsum*.

Some verbs occur very commonly, but only in a few forms: as,—

a. *Āiō*, *I say*:—

INDIC. Pres.	<i>āiō</i> , <i>ais</i> , <i>ait</i> ; — — — <i>aiunt</i>
	<i>Impf.</i> <i>aiēbam</i> (<i>aībam</i>), <i>aiēbās</i> , etc.
SUBJ. Pres.	<i>aiās</i> , <i>aiat</i> , <i>aiant</i>
IMPER.	<i>ai</i>
PART.	<i>aiēns</i>

b. *Inquam*, *I say* (used only, except in poetry, in direct quotations, like the English *quoth*, which is possibly from the same root):—

INDIC. Pres.	<i>inquam</i> , <i>inquis</i> , <i>inquit</i> <i>inquimus</i> , <i>inquitis</i> (late), <i>inquiunt</i>
	<i>Impf.</i> <i>inquiēbat</i>
	<i>Fut.</i> <i>inquiēs</i> , <i>-et</i>
	<i>Perf.</i> <i>inquisti</i> , <i>inquit</i>
IMPER.	<i>inque</i> , <i>inquitō</i>

c. The deponent *fārī*, *to speak*, forms the perfect tenses regularly: as, *fātus sum*, *eram*, etc. It has also —

INDIC. Pres.	<i>fātur</i> , <i>fantur</i>
	<i>Fut.</i> <i>fābor</i> , <i>fābitur</i>
IMPER.	<i>fāre</i>
INFIN.	<i>fārī</i>

¹ Root *AP* (as in *apiscor*) with *co* (D-).

² Root *OD*, as in *ōdium*.

³ Root *MEN*, as in *mēns*.

PART. Pres. (dat.)	fanti
Perf.	fātus, <i>having spoken.</i>
Ger.	fandus, <i>to be spoken of.</i>
GER.	fandi, -dō
SUP.	fātū

Several forms compounded with the prepositions *ex*, *prae*, *prō*, *inter*, occur: *as*, *praefātus*, *affārī*, *prōfātus*, *interfātus*, etc. The compound *infāns* is regularly used as a noun (*child*). *Infandus*, *nefandus*, are used as adjectives, *unspeakable*, *abominable*.

d. *Quaesō*, *I ask, beg* (original form of *quaerō*, § 132. d'), has —

INDIC. Pres.	quaesō, quaesimus
INFIN.	quaesere
PART.	quaesēns

e. *Ovāre*, *to triumph*, has the following. —

INDIC. Pres.	ovat
SUBJ. Pres.	ovet
Imperf.	ovāret
PART.	ovāns, ovātūrus, ovātus
GER.	ovandi

f. A few verbs are found chiefly in the Imperative: *as*, —

- Pres.* sing. *salvē*, plur. *salvēte*, *hail!* (from *salvus*, *safe and sound*). An infin. *salvēre* also occurs.
Pres. sing. *avē* (or *havē*), plur. *avēte*, *Fut.* *avētō*, *hail or farewell*.
Pres. sing. *cedo*, plur. *cedite* (*cette*), *give, tell*.
Pres. sing. *apage!* *begone!* (properly a Greek word).

g. *Queō*, *I can*, *nequeō*, *I cannot*, are conjugated like *esō*. They are rarely used except in the present.

INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
<i>Present.</i>			
queō	queam	nequeō (nōn queō)	nequeam
quis	queās	nōnquis	nequeās
quit	queat	nequit	nequeat
quimus	queāmus	nequimus	nequeāmus
quistis	queātis	nequistis	nequeātis
queunt	queant	nequeunt	nequeant
<i>Imperfect.</i>			
quisbam	quisrem	nequisbam	nequisrem
quisbat	quisret	nequisbat	nequisret
quisbant	quisrent	nequisbant	nequisrent

INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
		<i>Future.</i>	
quibō		—	
quibunt		nequibunt	
		<i>Perfect.</i>	
quīvī		nequīvī	
—	—	nequīvīstī	
quīvit	quīverit	nequīvit	
quīvērunt		nequīvērunt	
		<i>Pluperfect.</i>	
—	quīssent	—	nequīssē
		<i>INFINITIVE.</i>	
quīre	quīvisse (quīsse)	nequīre	nequīvisse
		<i>PARTICIPLES.</i>	
quīēns, queuntis		nequīēns	

NOTE.—A few passive forms are used by old writers with passive infinitives: as, *quitor, quitus, queātur, queantur, nequitur, nequitum*; cf. *possum* and *coepi* (§§ 137. note and 143. a).

Impersonal Verbs.

145. Many verbs, from their meaning, appear only in the *third person singular*, the *infinitive*, and the *gerund*. These are called Impersonal Verbs, as having no personal subject.¹ Their synopsis may be given as follows:—

CONJ. I. <i>it is plain.</i>	II. <i>it is allowed.</i>	III. <i>it chances.</i>	IV. <i>it results.</i>	PASS. CONJ. I. <i>it is fought.</i>
cōnstat	licet	accidit	ēvenit	pūgnātur
cōnstābat	licēbat	accidēbat	ēveniēbat	pūgnābātur
cōnstābit	licēbit [est	accidet	ēveniet	pūgnābitur
cōnstīdit	licuit, -itum	accidit	ēvenit	pūgnātum est
cōnstiterat	licuerat	acciderat	ēvēnerat	pūgnātum erat
cōnstiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum erit
cōnstet	liceat	accidat	ēveniat	pūgnētur
cōnstāret	licēret	accideret	ēveniēret	pūgnārētur
cōnstiterit	licuerit	acciderit	ēvēnerit	pūgnātum sit
cōnstīdisset	licuisset	accidisset	ēvēnisset	pūgnātum esset
cōnstāre	licēre	accidēre	ēveniēre	pūgnārī
cōnstīdisse	licuisse	accidisse	ēvēnisse	pūgnātum esse
stātūrum esse	-itūrum esse	—	-tūrum esse	pūgnātum īrī

¹ With impersonal verbs the word *IT* is used in English, having usually no representative in Latin, though *id, hoc, illud*, are often used nearly in the same way.

146. Impersonal Verbs may be classified as follows:—

a. Verbs expressing the *operations of nature* and the *time of day*: as, *pluit, it rains*; *ningit, it snows*; *grandinat, it hails*; *fulgurat, it lightens*; *vesperāscit* (inceptive, § 167. *a.*), *it grows late*; *lūcet hōc iam, it is getting light now*.

NOTE.—In these no subject is distinctly thought of. Sometimes, however, the verb is used personally with the name of a divinity as the subject: as, *Iūpiter tonat, Jupiter thunders*. In poetry other subjects are occasionally used: as, *fundae saxa pluunt, the slings rain stones*.

b. Verbs of *feeling*, where the person who is the proper subject becomes the object, as being himself affected by the feeling expressed in the verb (§ 221. *b.*). Such are: *miseret, it grieves*; *paenitet* (*poenitet*), *it repents*; *piget, it disgusts*; *pudet, it shames*; *taedet, it wearies*: as, *miseret mē, I pity* (it distresses me).

NOTE.—Such verbs often have also a passive form: as, *misereor, I pity* (am moved to pity); and occasionally other parts: as, *paenitūrus* (as from *paenitō*), *paenitendus, pudendus, pertaesum est, pigritum est*.

c. Verbs which have a *phrase* or *clause* as their subject (§§ 270. *a.*, 330, 332. *a.*): as,—

accidit, contingit, evenit, obtingit, obvenit, fit, it happens.
libet, it pleases.

licet, it is permitted.

certum est, it is resolved.

oñstat, it is clear.

placet, videtur, it seems good.

deceat, it is becoming.

dēlectat, iuvat, it delights.

oportet, necesse est, it is needful.

praestat, it is better.

interest, refert, it concerns.

vacat, there is leisure.

restat, superest, it remains.

NOTE.—Many of these verbs may be used personally. *Libet* and *licet* have also the passive forms *libitum* (*licitum*) *est*, etc. The participles *libēns* and *licēns* are used as adjectives.

d. The *passive of intransitive verbs* is very often used impersonally: as, *pugnātur, there is fighting* (it is fought); *itur, some one goes* (it is gone); *parcitur mihi, I am spared* (it is spared to me, see § 230).¹

¹ This use of the passive proceeds from its original *reflexive* meaning, the action being regarded as *accomplishing itself* (compare the French *se fait*).

Periphrastic Forms.

147. The following periphrastic forms are found in the inflection of the verb :—

- a.* The so-called "Periphrastic Conjugations" (see § 119).
- b.* The tenses of completed action in the passive formed by the tenses of *esse* with the perfect participle: *as, amātus est.*
- c.* The future infinitive passive, formed as follows:—
 1. By the infinitive passive of *eō, gō*, used impersonally with the supine in *-um*: *as, amātum iri.*
 2. By *fore* (or *futūrum esse*), with the perfect participle (as *amātus fore*).
 3. By *fore* with *ut* and the subjunctive (cf. § 288. *f*).

NOTE.

Origin and History of Verb-Forms.

The forms that make up the conjugation of a verb are composed of formations from a root, originally separate, but gradually grouped together, and afterwards supplemented by new formations made on old lines to supply deficiencies. Some of these forms were inherited, already made, by the Latin language; others were developed in the course of the history of the language itself.

1. PRESENT STEM. — The Present stem is a modification or development of the root (see § 123). In regular forms of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations it appears in all the other parts of the verb (including noun and adjective forms) as well, and is accordingly called the Verb-Stem.

The tenses of the Present system are made from the Present stem as follows:—

a. In the Present Indicative the personal endings are added directly to the present stem. Thus root *AR*, present- (and verb-) stem *arā-*; *arā-s, arā-mus, arā-tis.*

b. In the Imperfect Indicative the suffix *-bam, -bās, etc.* (originally a complete verb), is added. *bam* is probably the imperfect of the root *BHU* (cf. *ful, futūrus, fūō, φύω, be*), meaning *I was*. This was added to a complete word originally a case of a noun, as in *I was a-ploughing*, hence *arā-bam*. The form probably began in the second or the third conjugation and from that was extended to the others.

c. In the Future Indicative a similar suffix, *-bō, -bis, etc.,* is added (by the same process). *bō* is probably a present form of the same root *BHU*, with a future meaning: *as, arā-bō.*

Etymology: Verbs.

This form once in use in all the conjugations was later supplanted in the third and fourth by an inherited form, which was originally an optative mood, differing from the present indicative only in the final vowel of the stem (see § 126. c. 1): as, *sugō-bō* (old); *sugam*, *sugēs* (later).

d. In the Present Subjunctive the personal terminations were added to another form of present stem of great antiquity with a different vowel: as, *amem*, *moneam*, *audiam*.

e. In the Imperfect Subjunctive a suffix, *-rem*, *-res*, etc., was added. *-rem* is doubtless a very old modal form of *sum* diverted from its original use.

f. The noun and adjective forms of the Present system were originally separate formations made from the root by means of noun-suffixes. These forms being associated with the verb became types for the formation of new ones from the present stem, in cases where no such formation from the root ever existed. Thus *regere* is originally a dative (or locative) of a noun like *genus*, *generis*; but as *regere* seems to be *rege* + *re*, so *arā-re* was made in the same manner. *Gerendus* is the noun-stem *gerōn-*, i.e. *GER* + *ōn-* (*gerō*, *-ōnis*, § 162. c) + *dus*; but it seemed to be *gere* + *ndus*, and thus gave rise to *ama-ndus*.

2. PERFECT STEM.—The Latin inherited from the parent Indo-European speech preterite forms of two kinds:—

a. In the real perfect (perfect with *have* in English) the proper terminations (see § 118) are added directly to a root-form, which was originally a reduplication (doubling) of the root with vowel change. Thus *stō*, root *STA*, perfect *stetī* (for *†stesti*); cf. *pungō* (root *PUG*), *pupugī* (later *pupugī*).

b. In other inherited verbs the perfect was formed by a verbal auxiliary (some form of *sum*) added to the root (or later to the present stem). Thus *dīcō*, root *DIC*, perfect *†dīc-sī* (*dīxī*). This auxiliary being a complete verb-form, contained, of course, the personal terminations.

c. The remaining perfects were formed with a suffix *-vī*, of uncertain origin, but containing the personal terminations. But these formative processes had been forgotten long before the Latin language reached the stage in which we know it. The form in *-vī*, however, became the type for new Perfects. By the Romans, the first person singular of the Perfect (however formed), losing its final vowel, was treated as a new stem, from which other forms were developed by the use of added auxiliaries or by analogy with those already formed. This stem is

called the Perfect Stem. Thus were formed the Pluperfect and the Future Perfect Indicative, the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Perfect Infinitive. The terminations of these tenses are parts of **sum** in some form or other, but precisely how they are made is uncertain.

3. SUPINE STEM.—The Perfect and Future Participles and the Supine, though strictly noun-forms, each with its own suffix, agree in having the first letter of the suffix (**t**) the same and in suffering the same phonetic changes (by which the **t** becomes **s**, § 11. a. 2).

Hence these forms, along with several sets of derivatives (see §§ 162. a, 163. b, 164. m) used as nouns or adjectives, were felt by the Romans as belonging to one system, and are conveniently associated with the Supine Stem. Thus, —

pingō, pīctum, pīctus, pīctūrus, pīctūra, pīctor.

rideō, rīsum (for rīd-tum), rīsus (part.), rīsus (noun), rīsūrus, rīsīō, rīsor, rīsibilis.

The signs of mood and tense are often said to be inserted between the Root (or verb-stem) and the Personal ending. No such insertion is possible in a developed language like the Latin. All true verb-forms are the result, as shown above, of *composition*; that is, of adding to the root or the verb-stem either pronouns (personal endings) or fully developed auxiliaries (themselves containing the personal terminations), or of adding similar auxiliaries to the perfect stem; or of imitation of such processes. Thus **amābāmus** is made by adding to **amā-**, originally a significant word, or a form conceived as such, a full verbal form **†bāmus**, not by inserting **bā** between **amā-** and **-mus**.

CHAPTER VII.—*Particles.*

Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions are called PARTICLES.

In their origin these words are either (1) *case-forms*, actual or extinct, or (2) *compounds* and *phrases*.

Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions (§§ 152 and 155), and interjections must be reckoned as particles (§ 27).

I.—ADVERBS.

1. Derivation.

148. Adverbs are regularly formed from adjectives as follows:—

a. From adjectives of the *first and second declensions*, by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to *-ē*: as, *cārē*, *dearly*, from *cārus*, *dear* (stem *cāro-*).

NOTE.—The ending *-ē* is a relic of an old ablative in *-ēd* (cf. § 36. *f*).

b. From adjectives of the *third declension* by adding *-ter* to the stem. Stems in *nt-* (nom. *-ns*) lose the *t-*. All others are treated as *i*-stems. Thus,—

fortiter, *bravely*, from *fortis* (stem *forti-*), *brave*.

ācritēr, *eagerly*, from *ācer* (stem *ācri-*), *eager*.

vigilānter, *watchfully*, from *vigilāns* (stem *vigilant-*).

prūdēnter, *prudently*, from *prūdēns* (stem *prūdēt-*).

aliōter, *otherwise*, from *alius* (old stem *ali-*).

NOTE.—This suffix is probably the same as *-ter* in the Greek *-τερος* and in *uter*, *alter* (p. 49, n. 1). If so, these adverbs are neuter accusatives (cf. *d*).

c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (*-ē* and *-ter*). Thus *dūrus*, *hard*, has both *dūrē* and *dūrīter*; *miser*, *wretched*, has both *miserē* and *miserīter*.

d. The *neuter accusative* of adjectives and pronouns is often used as an adverb: as, *multum*, *much*; *facilē*, *easily*; *quid*, *why*.

So regularly in the comparative degree: as, *ācrius*, *more keenly* (positive *ācritēr*); *facilius*, *more easily* (positive, *facilē*).

NOTE.—These adverbs are strictly cognate accusatives (see § 240. *d*).

e. The *ablative neuter* or (less commonly) *feminine* of adjectives, pronouns, and nouns, may be used adverbially as, *falsō*, *falsely*, *citō*, *quickly* *rēctā* (ῥιᾷ), *straight (straightway)*, *crēbrō*, *frequently*; *fortē*, *by chance*; *spontē*, *of one's own accord*.

f. Some adverbs are derived from adjectives not in use: as, *abundē*, *plentifully* (as if from *†abundus*, cf. *abundō*, *abound*); *saepe*, *often* (cf. *saepe*, *hedge*, and *saepe*, *hedge in*); *propē*, *almost* (as if from *†propis*).

NOTE. — Many adverbs and other particles are case-forms of nouns or pronouns. In some the case is not obvious, and in some it is doubtful. Examples may be seen in the following: —

a. Accusative forms: *ſcitātum*, *quickly*; *nōn* (for *nē ūnum*), *not*; *iterum* (comparative of *is*), *a second time*, *dēmum* (superlative of *dē*, *down*), *at last*.

β. Ablative or Instrumental forms (ἵ. ἰ.) *quā*, *where*; *contrā*, *on the other hand*, *intrā*, *within*, *quī*, *how*; *aliquī*, *somehow*, *voigō*, *commonly*; *frūstrā*; *in vān*, *foris*, *out of doors*.

γ. Datives of adjectives and pronouns: *as*, *quō*, *whither*; *adē*, *to that degree*; *ultrō*, *beyond*; *citrō*, *this side* (as end of motion); *retrō*, *back*; *illō* (for *illō-ō*), weakened to *illū*, *thither*.

REMARK. — Those in *-trō* are from comparative stems (cf. *fls*, *cis*, *re*).

δ. Locative forms *ibi*, *there*; *ubi*, *where*; *peregrī* (*peregrē*), *abroad*; *hic* (for *thoi-ce*), *here*; *interim*, *meanwhile* (cf. *inter*); *indē*, *thence*; *tamen*, *yet* *ōlim* (from *ollus*, old form of *ille*), *once*. Also the compounds *extrinsecus*, *outside*, *hodiē* (*hōi + diē*), *to-day*; *perendiē*, *day after to-morrow*.

ε. Feminine accusatives: *statim*, *on the spot*, *saltem*, *at least* (generally *saltem*), from lost nouns in *-tis* (genitive *-tis*). Thus *-tim* became a regular adverbial termination; and by means of it adverbs were made from many noun and verb stems immediately, without the intervention of any form which could have an accusative in *-tim*: as, *sēparātīm*, *separately*, from *sēparātus*, *separate*. Some adverbs that appear to be feminine accusative are perhaps locative: as, *palam*, *openly*, *perperam*, *wrongly*; *tam*, *so*, *quam*, *as*.

ζ. Plural accusatives: as, *aliās*, *elsewhere*; *forās*, *out of doors* (as end of motion).

η. Of uncertain formation: (1) those in *-tus* (usually preceded by *i*), with an ablative meaning: as, *funditus*, *from the bottom, utterly*; *divinitus*, *from above, providentially*, *intus*, *within*; *penitus*, *within*; (2) those in *-dem*, *-dam*, *-dō*: as, *quidem*, *indeed*; *quondam*, *once*; *quandō* (cf. *dōnec*), *when*; (3) *dum* (probably accusative of time), *while*; *iam* (perhaps locative, cf. *nam*), *now*.

θ. Phrases or clauses which have grown together into adverbs (cf. *notwithstanding*, *nevertheless*, *besides*): *antē*, old *antideā*, *before* (*ante eā*, probably ablative or instrumental); *postmodo*, *presently* (*post modo*, *a short time after*); *dēnuō*, *anew* (*dē novō*); *prōrsus*, *absolutely* (*prō vorseus*, *straight ahead*); *quotannis*, *yearly* (*quot annis*, *as many years as there are*); *quam-ob-rem*, *wherefore*; *cōminus*, *hand to hand* (*con manus*), *eminus* *at long range* (*ex manus*); *ob-viam* (as in *ire obviam*, *to go to meet*); *pridem* (cf. *prae* and *dem* in *i-dem*), *for some time*; *forsan* (*fors an* [*est*]) *perhaps* (*it's a chance whether*); *forsitan* (*fors sit an*), *perhaps* (*it would be a chance whether*); *scilicet* (*scī, licet*), *that is to say* (*know, you may*); *videlicet* (*vidē, licet*), *as well* (*see, you may*).

2. Classification.

149. Adverbs are classified as follows :—

a. ADVERBS OF PLACE.¹

hīc, here.	hūc, hither.	hīnc, hence.	hāc, by this way.
ibi, there.	eō, thither.	inde, thence.	eā, by that way.
istīc, there.	istūc, thither.	istīnc, thence.	istā, by that way.
illīc, there.	illūc, thither.	illīnc, thence.	illā (illāc), "
ubi, where.	quō, whither.	unde, whence.	quā, by what way.
alicubi, somewhere.	aliquō, to, etc.	alicunde, from, etc.	aliquā, by, etc.
ibīdem, in the same place.	eōdem	indīdem	eādē
alibi, elsewhere.	aliō	aliunde	aliā
ubiubi, wherever.	quōquō	undecunque	quāquā
ubivīs, anywhere.	quōvīs	undique	quāvīs
alicubi, if anywhere.	aliquō	alicunde	aliquā
nōcubi, lest "	nōquō	nōcunde	nōquā
usque, all the way to.		citrō, to this side	
usquam, anywhere.		intrō, inwardly	
nusquam, nowhere.		porrō, further &c.	
ultrō, beyond (or freely, i.e. beyond what is required).			
quōrsum (for quō vorsum, whither turned?), to what end?		retrōrsum, backward.	
hōrsum, this way.		sūrsum, upward.	
prōrsum, forward (prōrsus, utterly).		deorsum, downward.	
intrōrsum, inwardly.		seorsum, apart.	
		aliorsum, another way.	

b. ADVERBS OF TIME.

quandō? when? (interrog.); cum (quom, quum), when (relat.)
ut, when, as.
nunc, now; tunc (tum), then; mox, presently, iam, already; dum,
while.

¹ The demonstrative adverbs **hīc**, **ibi**, **istīc**, **illīc**, and their correlatives, correspond in signification with the pronouns **hic**, **is**, **iste**, **ille** (see § 102), and are often equivalent to these pronouns with a preposition. as, **inde** = **ab eō**, etc. So the relative or interrogative **ubi** corresponds with **quī** (**quis**), **alicubi** with **aliquis**, **ubiubi** with **quisquis**, **al-cubi** with **aliquis** (see §§ 104, 105, with the table of Correlatives in § 106). All these adverbs were originally case-forms of pronouns. The forms in **-bi**, **-c**, **-inc**, and **-unde** are locative, those in **-ō** and **-ā** dative, those in **-ā** and **-āc** ablative or instrumental (p. 123, note).

primum (primū), *first*; deinde (postea), *next after*; postrimum (postrēmū), *finally*; posteaquam, postquam, *when (after that, as soon as)*.

umquam (unquam), *ever*; numquam (nunquam), *never*; semper, *always*.

aliquandō, *at some time, at length*; quandōque (quandocumque), *whenever*; denique, *at last*.

quotiens (quoties), *how often*; totiens, *so often*; aliquotiens, *a number of times*.

cotidie (quotidie), *every day*; in die, *from day to day*.

nondum, *not yet*; necdum, *nor yet*; vixdum, *scarce yet*; quam primum, *as soon as possible*; saepe, *often*; crebro, *frequently*; iam non, *no longer*.

c. ADVERBS OF DEGREE OR CAUSE.

quam, *how, as*; tam, *so*; quamvis, *however much, although*; quomodo, *how*.

cui quare, *why*; quod, quia, quoniam (for quom-iam), *because*; eo, *therefore*.

ita, sic, *so*; ut (uti), *as, how*; utut, utcumque, *however*.

quamquam (quanquam), *although, and yet*; et, etiam, quoque, *even, also*.

d. INTERROGATIVE PARTICLES.

an, -ne, anne, utrum, utrumne, num, *whether*.

nōne, annōn, *whether not*; numquid, ecquid, *whether at all (ec quid intellegis? have you any idea? do you understand at all?)*.

utrum (num), -ne, *whether*; . . . an (annōn, necne), *or*.

— " . . . -ne "

e. NEGATIVE PARTICLES.

nōn, *not* (in simple denial); haud (hau, haut), *minimē, not* (in contradiction); nē, *not* (in prohibition); nēve, neu, *nor*; nōdum, *much less*.

nē, *lest*; neque, nec, *nor*; nē . . . quidem, *not even*.

nōn modo . . . vērū (sed) etiam, *not only . . . but also*.

nōn modo . . . sed nē . . . quidem, *not only NOT . . . but not even*.

si minus, *if not*; quō minus (quōminus), *so as not*.

quīn (relat.), *but that*; (interrog.), *why not?*

nē, nec (in compos.), *not*; so in nesciō, *I know not*; negō, *I say no* (hīō, *I say yes*); negotium, *business* (nec otium); nēmō (nē hōmō), *no one*; nē quis, *lest any one*; neopinitus, *unexpected*; neque enim, *for . . . not*.

f. ADVERBS OF MANNER (see § 148).

g. NUMERAL ADVERBS (see § 96).

3. Peculiar Uses of Adverbs.

150. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative:
as, —

nēmō nōn audiet, *every one will hear* (nobody will not hear).

a. Many compounds of which nōn is the first part express an *indefinite* affirmative: as, —

nōnnūllus, *some*; nōnnūllī (= aliquī), *some few*.

nōnnihil (= aliquid), *something*.

nōnnēmō (= aliquot), *sundry persons*.

nōnnumquam (= aliquotiens), *sometimes*.

necnōn, *also* (nor not).

b. Two negatives of which the second is nōn (belonging to the predicate) express a *universal* affirmative: as, —

nēmō nōn, nūllus nōn, *nobody* [does] *not*, i.e. *everybody* [does] (cf. nōnnēmō above, *not nobody*, i.e. *somebody*).

nihil nōn, *everything*.

numquam nōn, *never not*, i.e. *always* (cf. nōnnumquam above, *not never*, i.e. *sometimes*).

151. The following adverbs require special notice: —

a. **Etiam** (et iam), *also, even*, is stronger than **quoque**, *also*, and usually precedes the emphatic word, while **quoque** follows it: as, —

nōn verbis solum sed etiam vi (Verres iii 64), *not only by words, but also by force*.

hōc quoque malefīcium (Rosc. A. 117), *this crime too*.

b. **Nunc** (for tnum-co) means definitely *now*, in the immediate present, and is not used as in English of past time. **Iam** means *now, already, at length, presently*, and includes a reference to previous time through which the state of things described has been or will be reached. It may be used of any time. With negatives it means (no) longer.

Tum, *then*, is correlative to **cum**, *when*, and may be used of any time. **Tunc**, *then, at that time*, is a strengthened form of **tum** (t̄tum-co, cf. nunc). Thus —

et iam antea dixi, *as I have already said before*.

si iam tantæ ætatis atque roboris haberet (Rosc. Amer. 149), *if he had attained a suitable age and strength* (lit. *if he now had, as he will by and by*).

nūc est iam lēniti locus, *there is no longer room for mercy*.

quod iam erat institutum, *which had come to be a practice (had now been established).*

nunc quidem deleta est, tunc florēbat (Lael. 13), *now ('tis true) she [Greece] is ruined, then she was in her glory.*

tum cum regnabat, *at the time when he reigned.*

c. **Certō** means *certainly*, **certē** (usually), *at any rate*: as, **certō sciō**, *I know for a certainty*; **ego certē**, *I at least.*

d. **Primum** means *first*, "*firstly*" (*first in order, or for the first time*), and implies a series of events or acts. **Prīmō** means *at first*, as opposed to *afterwards*, giving prominence merely to the difference of time: as, --

hōc primum sentiō, *this I hold in the first place.*

aedēs primō ruere rēbāmur, *at first we thought the house was falling.*

In enumerations, **primum** (or **primō**) is often followed by **deinde**, *secondly, in the next place*, or by **tum**, *then*, or by both in succession. **Deinde** may be several times repeated (*secondly, thirdly, etc.*). The series is often closed by **dēnique** or **postrēmō**, *lastly, finally*. Thus, --

primum dē genere belli, deinde dē magnitudine, tum dē imperātore dēligendō (Manil. 6), *first of the kind of war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander.*

e. **Quidem**, *indeed*, gives emphasis, and often has a *concessive* meaning, especially when followed by **sed, autem, etc.**: as, --

hōc quidem vidēre licet (Lael. 54), *THIS surely one may see.* [Emphatic.]

(**secūritās**) **speciē quidem blanda, sed reapse multis locis repudianda** (id. 47), (*tranquillity*) *in appearance, 'tis true, attractive, but in reality to be rejected for many reasons.* [Concessive.]

Nē . . . quidem means *not even* or *not . . . either*. The emphatic word or words must stand between **nē** and **quidem**.

senex nē quod spēret quidem habet (C. M. 68), *an old man has NOT anything to hope for EVEN.*

sed nē Iugurtha quidem quietus erat (Jug. 51), *but Jugurtha was not quiet EITHER.*

II. — PREPOSITIONS.

152. Prepositions¹ are regularly used either with the Accusative or with the Ablative.

¹ Prepositions are not originally distinguished from Adverbs in form or meaning, but only specialized in use. Most of them are true case-forms: as, the comparative instrumentals **contrā, infrā, suprā**, and the accusatives (cf. § 83, d) **circum, coram, cum, circiter, prae, propter** (comp. of **prae**), **propter** (comp. of **prope**). Of the remainder, **versus** is a petrified nominative (participle of **vertō**); **adversus** is a compound of **versus**; while the origin of the **bi** forms **ab, ad, de, ex, ob, trans**, is obscure and doubtful.

a. The following are used with the Accusative: —

ad, to.	extrā, outside.	post, after.
adversus, against.	in, into.	praeter, beyond.
adversum, towards.	infrā, below.	prope, near.
ante, before.	inter, among.	propter, on account of.
apud, at, near.	intrā, inside.	secundum, next to.
circa, around.	iuxtā, near.	sub, under.
circum, around.	ob, on account of	suprā, above.
circiter, about.	penes in the power.	trāns, across.
cis, citrā, this side.	per, through	ultrā, on the further side.
contra, against.	pōne, behind.	versus, towards
ergā, towards.		

b The following are used with the Ablative¹. —

ā, āb, abs, away from, by	in, in.
absque, without, but for.	prae, in comparison with.
cōram, in presence of.	prō, in front of, for.
cum, with.	sine, without.
dē, from.	sub, under.
ē, ex, out of.	tenu, up to, as far as.

c. The following may be used with either the Accusative or the Ablative, but with a difference in meaning:

in, into. in	sub, under.
subter, beneath.	super, above.

In and sub, when followed by the accusative, indicate *motion to*, when by the ablative, *rest in*, a place: as, —

vēnit in aedes, *he came into the house*; erat in aedibus, *he was in the house*.
disciplina in Britannia reperta atque inde in Galliam translata esse existimatur, *the system is thought to have been discovered in Great Britain and thence brought over to Gaul*.

sub ilice consederat, *he had seated himself under an ilex*

sub lēgēs mittere orbem, *to subject the world to laws* (to send the world under laws)

153. The uses of the Prepositions are as follows: —

Ā, ab, AWAY FROM,² FROM, OFF FROM, with the ablative.

a. Of place: as, ab urbe profectus est, *he set out from the city*

Ā. Of time (1) from as, ab hōrā tertiā ad vespēram, *from the third hour till evening*; (2) just after: as, ab eō magistratū, *after [holding] that office*.

¹ For palam, etc. see § 261. b, c.

² Ab signifies direction from the object, but often towards the speaker; compare dē, down from, and ex, out of.

Idiomatic uses: *ā reliquis differunt, they differ from the others*; *ab parvulis, from early childhood*; *prope ab urbe, near (not far from) the city*; *liberāre ah, to set free from*; *occisus ab hoste (periit ab hoste), slain by an enemy*; *ab hāc parte, on this side*; *ab re eius, to his advantage*; *ā republicā, for the interest of the state*.

Ad, TO, TOWARDS, AT, NEAR, with the accusative (cf. *in, into*).

a. Of place: *as, ad urbem vēnit, he came to the city*; *ad meridiem, towards the south*; *ad exercitum, with the army*; *ad hostem, toward the enemy*; *ad urbem, near the city*.

b. Of time: *as, ad nōnam hōram, till the ninth hour*.

c. With persons: *as, ad eum vēnit, he came to him*.

Idiomatic uses: *ad supplicia dēscendunt, they resort to punishment*; *ad haec respondit, to this he answered*; *ad tempus, at the [lit] time*; *adire ad rempublicam, to go into public life*; *ad petendam pacem, to seek peace*; *ad latera, on the flank*; *ad arma, to arms*; *ad hunc modum, in this way*; *quem ad modum, how, as*; *ad centum, near a hundred*; *ad hōc, besides*; *omnēs ad unum, all to a man*; *ad diem, on the day*.

Ante, IN FRONT OF, BEFORE, with the accusative (cf. *post, after*).

a. Of place: *as, ante portam, in front of the gate*; *ante exercitum, in advance of the army*.

b. Of time: *as, ante bellum, before the war*.

Idiomatic uses: *ante urbem captam, before the city was taken*; *ante diem quintum (a.d.v.) Kal., the fifth day before the Calends (the 3d day before the last of the month)*; *ante quadriennium, four years before or ago*; *ante tempus, too soon (before the time)*.

Apud, AT, BY, AMONG, with the accusative.

a. Of place (rare and archaic): *as, apud forum, at the forum (in the market-place)*.

b. With reference to persons or communities: *as, apud Helvētiōs, among the Helvetians*; *apud populum, before the people*; *apud aliquem, at one's house*; *apud sē, at home or in his senses*; *apud Cicerōnem, in [the works of] Cicero*.

Circum,¹ circa, circiter, ABOUT, AROUND, with the accusative.

a. Of place: *circum haec loca, hereabout*; *circā sē habent, they have with them*.

b. Of time or number (*circā* or *circiter, not circum*): *as, circā eandem hōram, about the same hour*; *circiter passūs mille, about a mile*. Especially about, in regard to: *circā quem pūna est (Quintil), with regard to whom, etc.*

Contrā,² OPPOSITE, AGAINST, with the accusative: *as, —*

contrā Italiam, over against Italy; *contrā haec, in answer to this*.

Often as adverb: *as, haec contrā, this in reply*; *contrā autem, but on the other hand*; *quod contrā, whereas, on the other hand*.

¹ *Circum* is an accusative form; *circā*, is instrumental; *circiter*, accusative of a comparative. For the stem, cf. *circus*.

² *Contrā* is instrumental comparative of *cum* (con-).

Cum, WITH, TOGETHER WITH, with the ablative.

- a. Of place: *as, vade mēcum, go with me; cum omnibus impedimentis, with all [their] baggage.*
 b. Of time: *as, primā cum luce, at early dawn (with first light).*
 Idiomatic uses: *māgnō cum dolore, with great sorrow; communicāre aliquid cum aliquō, share something with some one; cum malō suō, to his own hurt; cōfigere cum hoste, to fight with the enemy; esse cum telō, to go armed; cum silentiō, in silence.*

Dē, DOWN FROM, FROM, with the ablative (cf. *ab*, away from; *ex*, out of).

- a. Of place: *as, dē caelō dēmissus, sent down from heaven; dē nāvibus dēsilire, to jump down from the ships.*
 b. Figuratively, CONCERNING, ABOUT, OF: ¹ *as, cōgnōscit dē Clōdī caede, he learns of the murder of Clodius; cōsilia dē bellō, plans of war.*
 c. In a partitive sense (compare *ex*), out of, of: *as, ūnus dē plēbe, one of the people.*
 Idiomatic uses: *multis dē causis, for many reasons; quā dē causā, for which reason; dē improvīsō, of a sudden; dē industriā, on purpose; de integrō, anew; dē tertiā vigiliā, just at midnight (starting at the third watch); dē mēse Decembri nāvigare, to sail as early as December.*

Ex, ē, FROM (the midst, opposed to *in*), OUT OF, with the ablative (cf. *ab* and *dē*).

- a. Of place: *as, ex omnibus partibus silvae evolāverunt, they flew out from all parts of the forest; ex Hispaniā, [a man] from Spain.*
 b. Of time: *as, ex eō diē quintus, the fifth day from that (four days after); ex hōc diē, from this day forth.*
 Idiomatically or less exactly: *ex cōsulatū, right after his consulship; ex ēius sententiā, according to his opinion; ex acquō, justly; ex improvīsō, unexpectedly; ex tuā rē, to your advantage, ināgnā ex parte, in a great degree; ex equō pugnāre, to fight on horseback; ex ūsu, expedient; ē regiōne, opposite; quaerere ex aliquō, to ask of some one; ex senātūs cōsultō, according to the decree of the senate; ex fugā, in [their] flight (proceeding immediately from it); ūnus ē filiis, one of the sons.*

In, with the accusative or the ablative.

1. With the accusative, INTO (opposed to *ex*).

- a. Of place: *as, eōs in silvās reiēcērunt, they drove them back into the woods.*
 b. Of time, TILL, UNTIL: *as, in lūcem, till daylight.*
 Idiomatically or less exactly: *in meridiem, towards the south; amor in (ergā or adversus) patrem, love for his father; in aram cōfūgit, he fled to the altar (on the steps, or merely to); in diēs, from day to day; in longitudinem, in length; in haec verba iūrāre, to swear to these words; hunc in modum, in this way; orātiō in Catilinam, a speech against Catiline; in perpetuum, for ever; in pēius, for the worse; in diem vivere, to live from hand to mouth.*

¹ *Of originally had the same meaning as dē (compare of).*

2. With the ablative, IN, ON, AMONG.

In very various connections: as, in castris, *in the camp* (cf. ad castra, *to, at, or near the camp*); in mari, *on the sea*; in urbe esse, *to be in town*; in tempore, *in season*; in scribendō, *while writing*; est mihi in animō, *I have it in mind*; in ancoris, *at anchor*; in hōc homine, *in the case of this man*; in dubiō esse, *to be in doubt*.

Infra, BELOW, with the accusative.

- a. Of place: as, ad mare infra oppidum, *by the sea below the town*; infra caelum, *under the sky*.
- b. Figuratively: as, infra Homērum, *later than Homer*; infra trēs pedēs, *less than three feet*; infra elephantōs, *smaller than elephants*; infra infimōs omnes, *the lowest of the low*.

Inter, BETWEEN (with two accusatives), AMONG: as, —

inter mē et Scipionem, *between myself and Scipio*; inter ōs et ossam, *between the cup and the lip* (the mouth and the morsel); inter hostium tela, *amid the weapons of the enemy*; inter omnes primus, *first of all*; inter bibendum, *while drinking*; inter sē loquuntur, *they talk together*; inter nōs, *between ourselves*.

Ob, TOWARDS, ON ACCOUNT OF, with the accusative.

- a. Literally: (1) of motion (archaic): as, ob Rōmam, *towards Rome* (Ennius); ob viam, *to the road* (preserved as adverb, *in the way of*). (2) Of place in which, BEFORE, in a few phrases: as, ob oculos, *before the eyes*.
- b. Figuratively, IN RETURN FOR (mostly archaic, probably a word of account, balancing one thing against another): as, ob mulierem, *in pay for the woman*; ob rem, *for gain*. Hence applied to reason, cause, and the like, ON ACCOUNT OF (a similar mercantile idea), FOR: as, ob eam causam, *for that reason*; quam ob rem (quamobrem), *wherefore, why*.

Per, THROUGH, OVER, with the accusative.

- a. Of motion: as, per urbem ire, *to go through the city*; per mūrōs, *over the walls*.
- b. Of time: as, per hiemem, *throughout the winter*.
- c. Figuratively, of persons as means or instruments: as, per hominēs idōneōs, *through the instrumentality of suitable persons*; licet per mē, *you* (etc.) *may for all me*. Hence, stat per mē, *it is through my instrumentality*. So, per sē, *in and of itself*.
- d. Weakened, in many adverbial expressions: as, per iocum, *in jest*; per speciem, *in show, ostentatiously*.

Prae, IN FRONT OF, with the ablative.

- a. Literally, of place (in a few connections): as, prae sē portāre, *to carry in one's arms*; prae sē ferre, *to carry before one* (hence figuratively), *exhibit, proclaim, ostentatiously make known*.
- b. Figuratively, of hindrance, as by an obstacle in front (compare English *for*): as, prae gaudiō conticuit, *he was silent for joy*.

- c. Of comparison: *as, praec magnitudine corporum suorum, in comparison with their own great size.*

Praeter, ALONG BY, BY, with the accusative.

1. Literally: *as, praeter castra, by the camp* (along by, in front of); *praeter oculos, before the eyes.*
2. Figuratively, **BEYOND, BESIDES, MORE THAN, IN ADDITION TO, EXCEPT:** *as, praeter spem, beyond hope; praeter alios, more than others; praeter paucos, with the exception of a few.*

Prō, IN FRONT OF, with the ablative: *as, —*

sedens prō aede Castoris, sitting in front of the temple of Castor; prō populō, in presence of the people. So *prō rostris, on* [the front of] *the rostra; prō cōtione, before the assembly* (in a speech).

In various idiomatic uses: prō lege, in defence of the law; prō vitulā, instead of a heifer; prō centum milibus, as good as a [hundred] thousand; prō ratā parte, in due proportion; prō hac vice, for this once; prō consule, in place of consul; prō viribus, considering his strength; prō virili parte, to the best of one's ability.

Propter, NEAR, BY, with the accusative: *as, —*

propter tē sedet, he sits next you. Hence, **ON ACCOUNT OF** (cf. *all along of*): *as, propter metum, through fear.*

Secundum,¹ JUST BEHIND, FOLLOWING, with the accusative.

1. Literally: *as, ite secundum mē* (Plaut.), *go behind me; secundum litus, near the shore; secundum flūmen, along the stream* (cf. *secundō flūmine, down stream*).
2. Figuratively, **ACCORDING TO:** *as, secundum nātūrā, according to nature.*

Sub, UNDER, UP TO, with the accusative or the ablative.

- a. Of motion, with the accusative: *as, sub montem succedere, to come close to the hill.*

Idiomatically: *sub noctem, towards night; sub lūcem, near daylight; sub haec dicta, at* (following) *these words.*

- b. Of rest, with the ablative: *as, sub Iove, in the open air* (under the heaven, personified as Jove): *sub monte, at the foot of the hill.*

Idiomatically: *sub eodem tempore, about the same time* (just after it).

Super,² ABOVE, OVER, with the accusative or ablative: *as, —*

vulnus super vulnus, wound upon wound; super Indōs, beyond the Hindoos. But, — *super tāli re, about such an affair.* (See § 260. c.)

Suprā,³ ON TOP OF, ABOVE, with the accusative: *as, —*

suprā terram, on the surface of the earth. So also figuratively: *as, suprā hanc memoriā, before our remembrance; suprā mōrem, more than usual; suprā quod, besides.*

¹ Part. of sequor.

² Comp. of sub.

³ Instrumental of superus, § 91. b.

Trāns,¹ ACROSS, OVER, THROUGH, BY, with the accusative.

- a. Of motion: as, *trāns mare currunt, they run across the sea*; *trāns flūmen ferre, to carry over a river*; *trāns aethera, through the sky*; *trāns caput iace, throw over your head*.
 b. Of rest: as, *trāns Rhēnum incolunt, they live across the Rhine*.

Ūltrā, BEYOND (on the further side), with the accusative: as, —

- cis Padum ūltrāque, on this side of the Po and beyond*. *ūltrā eum numerum, more than that number*; *ūltrā fidem, incredible*; *ūltrā modum, immoderate*.

[For Prepositions in Compounds, see § 170.]

NOTE. — Some adverbs appear as prepositions: as, *intra, insuper*.

III. — CONJUNCTIONS.

154. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are of two classes: —

a. CO-ORDINATE, connecting co-ordinate or similar constructions (see § 180. a). These are: —

1. Copulative or disjunctive, implying a connection or opposition of thought as well as of words: as, *et, and*.
2. Adversative, implying a connection of words, but a contrast in thought: as, *sed, but*.
3. Causal, introducing a cause or reason: as, *nam, for*.
4. Illative, denoting an inference: as, *igitur, therefore*.

b. SUBORDINATE, connecting a subordinate or dependent clause with that on which it depends (see § 180. b). These are:

1. Conditional, denoting a condition or hypothesis: as, *si, if*; *nisi, unless*.
2. Comparative, implying comparison as well as condition: as, *sic si, as if*.
3. Concessive, denoting a concession or admission: as, *quamquam, although* (lit. *however much it may be true that, etc.*)
4. Temporal: as, *postquam, after*.
5. Consecutive, expressing result: as, *ut, so that*.
6. Final, expressing purpose: as, *ut, in order that*; *ne, that not*.

NOTE 1. — Conjunctions, like adverbs, are either petrified cases of nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, or obscured phrases: as, *sed*, an old ablative (cf. *sed, prōd*); *quod*, an old accusative; *dum*, an old accusative (cf. *tum, cum*); *verō*, an old ablative of *verus*; *nihilōminus, none the less*; *proinde*, lit. *forward from there*.

NOTE 2. — A phrase used as a conjunction is called a *conjunctive phrase*: as, *quā propter, quō cirā, wherefore*.

¹ Probably neuter participle, cf. *terminus*.

155. Conjunctions are more numerous and more accurately distinguished in Latin than in English. The following list includes the common conjunctions¹ and conjunctive phrases:—

1. Co-ordinate.

a. COPULATIVE AND DISJUNCTIVE.

et, -que, atque (āc), and.

et. . . et; et . . . -que (atque); -que . . . et; -que . . . -que (poet.), both . . . and.

etiam, quoque, neque nōn (necnōn), quinetiam, itidem (item), also.

etiam . . . tum; tum . . . tum, both . . . and; not only . . . but also.

quā . . . quā, on one hand . . . on the other hand.

modo . . . modo, now . . . now.

aut . . . aut; vel . . . vel (-ve), either . . . or.

sive (seu) . . . sive, whether . . . or.

nec (neque) . . . nec (neque); neque . . . nec; nec . . . neque (rare), neither . . . nor.

et . . . neque, both . . . and not.

nec . . . et; nec (neque) . . . -que, neither . . . and.

b. ADVERSATIVE.

sed, autem, vērū, vērō, at, atquē, but.

tamen, attamen, sed tamen, vērū tamen, but yet, nevertheless.

nihilōminus, none the less.

at vērō, but in truth; enim vērō, for in truth.

cōterum, on the other hand, but.

c. CAUSAL AND ILLATIVE.

nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.

quia, quod, because.

quoniam, quippe, cum (quom, quum), quandō, quandōquidem, siquidem, utpote, since, inasmuch as.

propterea (. . . quod), for this reason (. . . that).

quāpropter, quārē, quamobrem, quōcirā, unde, wherefore, whence.

ergō, igitur, itaque, idē, idcirco, proinde, therefore, accordingly.

NOTE.—Of these *quia, quod, quoniam, quippe, cum, siquidem*, often introduce subordinate clauses. As all subordinate clauses have been developed from clauses once co-ordinate (p. 164), the distinction between co-ordinate conjunctions and subordinate is often obscure.

¹ Some of these have been included in the classification of adverbs. See also list of correlatives, § 265.

d. CONCESSIVE.

quidem, to be sure, it is true.

2. Subordinate.

e. CONDITIONAL.

sī, if; sīn, but if; nisi (nī), unless, if not; quod sī, but if.
modo, dum, dummodo, sī modo, if only, provided.
dummodo nō (dum nō, modo nō), provided only not.

f. COMPARATIVE.

ut, uti, sicut, velut, prout, praeut, ceu, as, like as.
tamquam (tanquam), quasi, utq, ac sī, velut, veluti, velutq, as if.
quam, atque (ac), as, than.

g. CONCESSIVE.

etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, tamenetsī, quamquam (quanquam), al-
though.
quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, however much.
licet (properly a verb), ut, cum (quom, quum), though, suppose,
whereas.

h. TEMPORAL.

cum (quom, quum), cum primum, ubi, ut primum, postquam
(posteaquam), when.
prius . . . quam, ante . . . quam, before, nōn ante . . . quam, not
. . . until.
quandō, simul atque (simul ac), simul, as soon as.
dum, usque dum, donec, quoad, until.

i. CONSECUTIVE AND FINAL.

ut (uti), quō, so that, in order that.
nē, ut nē, lest (that . . . not, in order that not); nēve (neu), nor.
quān (after negatives), quōminus, but that (so as to prevent).

156. The following are the principal conjunctions whose meaning requires to be noticed:—

a. Et, and, simply connects words or clauses; -que combines more closely into one connected whole. -que is always enclitic to the word connected or to the first or second of two or more words connected. Thus,

cum coniugibus et liberis, with [their] wives and children.

ferro ignique, with fire and sword. [Not as separate things, but as the combined means of devastation.]

aquā et igni interdictus, forbidden the use of water and fire. [In a legal formula, where they are considered separately.]

Atque (**āc**) adds with some emphasis or with some implied reflection on the word added. Hence it is often equivalent to *and so, and yet, and besides, and then*. But these distinctions depend very much upon the feeling of the speaker, and are often untranslatable: as, —

omnia honesta atque inhonesta, *everything honorable and dishonorable* (too, without the slightest distinction).

ars atque disciplina, *practice and theory beside* (the more important or less expected).

atque ego credō, *and yet I believe* (for my part).

In the second of two connected ideas, *and not* is expressed by **neque** (**nec**): as, —

neque vērō hōc solum dixit, *and he not only said this*.

Atque (**āc**), in the sense of *as, than*, is also used after words of comparison and likeness: as, —

nōn secus (aliter) āc sī, *not otherwise than if*.

prō eō āc dēbui, *as was my duty* (in accordance as I ought).

aequē āc tū, *as much as you*.

haud minus āc iussī faciunt, *they do just as they are ordered*.

simul atque, *as soon as*.

Et and the more emphatic **vērum** or **vērō**, *but*, are used to introduce something in opposition to what precedes, especially after negatives (*not this . . . but something else*). **At** introduces with emphasis a new point in an argument, but is also used like the others.

At enim is almost always used to introduce a supposed objection which is presently to be overthrown. **At** is more rarely used alone in this sense. **Autem**, *however, now*, is the weakest of the adversatives, and often has hardly any adversative force perceptible. **Atqui**, *however, now*, sometimes introduces an objection and sometimes a fresh step in the reasoning. **Quod si**, *but if, and if, now if*, is used to continue an argument. **Ast** is old or poetic and is equivalent to **at**.

NOTE.—A concessive is often followed by an adversative either in a coordinate or a subordinate clause: as, **etiamsi quod scribās nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen** (Cic.), *though you have nothing to write, still write all the same*.

Aut, *or*, excludes the alternative; **vel** (probably imperative of **volō**) and **-ve** give a choice between two alternatives. But this distinction is sometimes disregarded. Thus, —

sed quis ego sum aut quae est in mē facultās, *but who am I or what special capacity have I?* [Here **vel** could not be used, because in fact a negative is implied and both alternatives are excluded].

quam tenui aut nullā potius valētūdine, *what feeble health [he had], or rather none at all.* [Here *vel* might be used, but would refer only to the expression, not to the fact].

aut bibat aut abeat, *let him drink or (if he won't do that, then let him) quit.* [Here *vel* would mean, let him do either as he chooses].

vita talis fuit vel fortunā vel gloriā, *his life was such either in respect to fortune or fame* (whichever way you look at it).

sī propinquos habeant imbecilliōres vel animō vel fortunā, *if they have relatives beneath them either in spirit or in fortune* (in either respect, for example).

cum cōgniti sunt et aut deōrum aut rēgum filii inventi, *sons either of gods or of kings.* [Here one case would exclude the other.]

implicati vel ūsū diūturnō vel iam officiis, *entangled either by close intimacy or even by obligations.* [Here the second case might exclude the first.]

Sive (seu) is properly used in disjunctive conditions (*if either . . . or if*), but also with alternative words and clauses, especially with two names for the same thing: as, —

sive aridēns sive quodāta putāret (De Orat. i. 91), *either laughingly or because he really thought so.*

Vel, *even, for instance*, is often used with no alternative force: as, —
vel minimus, *the very least.*

d. Nam and **namque**, *for*, usually introduce a real reason, formally expressed, for a previous statement; **enim** (always postpositive), a less important explanatory circumstance put in by the way; **etenim** (*for, you see; for, you know; for, mind you*) and its negative **neque enim** introduce something self-evident or needing no proof.

(ea vita) quae est sōla vita nōminanda. **nam** dum sumus in his inclūsi compāgibus corporis mūnere quodam necessitatīs et gravi opere perfungimur. est enim animus caelestis, etc. (Cat. Maj. 77).

hārum trium sententiārum nūlli prorsus assentior. nec enim illa prima vēra est, *for of course that first one isn't true.*

e. Ergō, *therefore*, is used of things proved formally, but often has a weakened force. **Igitur**, *then, accordingly*, is weaker than **ergō** and is used in passing from one stage of an argument to another. **Itaque**, *therefore, accordingly, and so*, is used in proofs or inferences from the nature of things rather than in formal logical proof.

All of these are often used merely to resume a train of thought broken by a digression or parenthesis. **Idcirco**, *for this reason, on this account*, is regularly followed (or preceded) by a correlative: as, **quia, quod, si, ut, nō**, and refers to the special point introduced by the correlative.

nē aegri quidem quia nōn omnēs convalēscunt, idcirco ars nūlla medicinae est. primum igitur aut negandum est esse deōs . . . aut quī deōs esse concedant eis fatendum est eōs aliquid agere idque praeclārū; nihil est autem praeclārū mundi administratiōe deōrum igitur cōsiliō administrātur. quod si aliter est, aliquid profectō sit necesse est melius et maiōre vī praeditum quam deus. . . nōn est igitur nātūra deōrum praepotēns neque excellēns, si quidem ea subiecta est ei vel necessitati vel nātūrae quā caelum maria terrae regantur, nihil est autem praestantius deō, ab eō igitur mundum necesse est regi. nūlli igitur est nātūrae oboediēns aut subiectus deus: omnem ergō regit ipse nātūram. etenim si concedimus intelligentis esse deōs, concedimus etiam providentis et rerum quidem māmārum. ergō utrum ignōrant quae rēs māmāe sint quōque eae modō trāctandae et fuendae an vim nōn habent quā tantās rēs sustineant et gerant? (N. D. ii. 76.)

malum mihi vidētur mors. est miserum igitur, quoniam malum. certē. ergō et ei quibus ēvenit iam ut morentur et ei quibus eventūrum est miseri. mihi ita vidētur. nēmō ergō nōn miser. (Tusc. i. 9.) meministis enim cum illius nefarii gladiatōris vōcēs percēbuissem quās, etc. — tum igitur (Murena 50).

f. Quia, because, regularly introduces a fact; quod, either a fact or a statement. Quoniam (for quom iam), inasmuch as, since, when now, now that, has reference to motives, excuses or justifications, and the like. Quandō, since, is mostly archaic or late.

possunt quia posse videntur, *they can because they think they can.*
locus est a mē quoniam ita Murena voluit retrāctandus (Murena 54), *I must review the point, since Murena has so wished.*

mē reprehendis quod idem dēfendam (as he had not) quod lēge pūnīerim (Murena 67), *you blame me because [as you say] I defend the same charge which I have punished by the law.*

reprehendis mē quia dēfendam (as he had) (Sulla, 50).

cūr igitur pācem nōlō? quia turpis est (Philip. vii. 9), *why then do I not wish for peace? Because it is disgraceful.*

In the denial of a reason, nōn quō is used as well as nōn quod, nōn quia, and nōn quā, but not nōn quoniam. Thus, —

nōn quia multis dēbeō . . . sed quia saepe concurrunt aliquōrum bene dē mē meritōrum inter ipsōs contentiōnēs (Plancius 78), *not because I am indebted to many, but because, etc.*

nōn quā pari viriūte et voluntāte alii fuerint, sed tantam causam nōn habuerunt (Philip. vii. 6), *not that there were not others of equal courage and good-will, but they had not so much reason.*

g. Cum (quom), when, is always a relative, and is often correlative with tum (see A. 1, below); quandō, when (rarely since), is used as interrogative, relative and indefinite: as, quandō? hodiē, when? to-day; si quandō, if ever

h. 1. Conjunctions, especially those of relative origin, frequently have a correlative in another clause, to which they correspond: as, —

ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs, as you sow, so shall you reap.

uti initium, sic finis est, as is the beginning, so is the end.

tum cum Catilinam cīcībam (Catil. iii. 3), at the time when, etc.

2. Often the same conjunction is repeated in two co-ordinate clauses:
Examples are: —

et . . . et, both . . . and.

modo . . . modo, now . . . now.

nunc . . . nunc, now . . . now.

iam . . . iam, now . . . now.

simul . . . simul, at once (this) and also (that).

quā . . . quā, both . . . and, as well . . . as, alike (this) and (that).

i. The concessives (*etsi*, *quamvis*, etc., *although*) may introduce either a fact or a mere supposition, and are often followed by the correlative *tamen*, *yet*, *nevertheless*; *quamquam* is regularly used to introduce an admitted fact and not a mere supposition.

Quamquam (and rarely *etsi*, *tametsi*), in the sense of *though* (and *yet*, *but*, *however*) are also used to introduce an independent statement made to limit or correct the preceding (*quamquam correctivum*): as, —

ille vult diū vivere, hic diū vixit, quamquam, o di boni, quid est in hominis vitā diū? (Cat. Maj. 68), the one wishes to live long, the other has lived long, though (after all) Good Heavens! what is there that is long in the life of man?

k. *Autem*, *enim*, and *vērō* are postpositive, *i.e.* they always follow one or more words of their clause; so generally *igitur* and often *tamen*.

INTERJECTIONS.

Ō, ēn, ecoe, ehem, papae, vāh (of astonishment).

iō, ēvae, ēvoe, euhoe (of joy).

heu, ſheu, vae, alas (of sorrow).

heus, eho, ehodum, ho (of calling); et, hist.

ēia, euge (of praise).

prō (of attestation): as, prō pudor, shame!

CHAPTER VIII.—*Formation of Words.*

NOTE.—All formation of words is originally a process of composition. An element significant in itself is added to another significant element, and thus the meaning of the two is combined. No other combination is possible for the formation either of inflections or of stems. Thus, in fact, *words* (since roots and stems are significant elements, and so words) are first juxtaposed, then brought under one accent, and finally felt as one word. This gradual process is seen in *sea change, sea-nymph, seaside*. But as all derivation, properly so-called, appears as a combination of uninflected stems, every type of formation in use must date back of inflection. Hence words were not in strictness derived either from nouns or from verbs, but from *stems* which were neither, because they were in fact both; for the distinction between noun- and verb-stems had not yet been made.

After the development of Inflection, however, that one of several kindred words which seemed the simplest was regarded as the *Primitive* form, and from this the other words of the group were thought to be *derived*. Such supposed processes of formation were then imitated, often erroneously, and in this way *new modes of derivation* arose. Thus new adjectives were formed from nouns, new nouns from adjectives, new adjectives from verbs, and new verbs from adjectives and nouns.

In course of time the real or apparent relations of many words became confused, so that nouns and adjectives once supposed to come from nouns were often assigned to verbs, and others once supposed to come from verbs were assigned to nouns.

Further, since the language was constantly changing, many words went out of use, and do not occur in the literature as we have it. Thus many derivatives survive of which the Primitive is lost.

Finally, since all conscious word-formation is imitative, intermediate steps in derivation were sometimes omitted, and occasionally apparent derivatives occur for which no proper Primitive ever existed.

I.—ROOTS AND STEMS.

157. Roots¹ are of two kinds:—

1. *Verbal*, expressing ideas of action or condition (sensible phenomena).

2. *Pronominal*, expressing ideas of position and direction.

Stems are divided into (1) Noun- (including Adjective-) stems, and (2) Verb-stems.

NOTE.—Noun- and verb-stems were not originally different (see p. 163), and in the consciousness of the Romans were often confounded, but in general were treated as distinct.

¹ For the distinction between Roots and Stems, see §§ 21, 22.

158. Words are formed by inflection :—

1. From roots inflected as stems :— *

a. Without change: as, *duo-is* (*dux*), *DUC*; *neo-is* (*nex*); *is*, *id*. So in verbs: as, *est*, *fert*, *est* (cf. p. 86).

b. With change of the root-vowel: as, *lūo-is* (*lūx*), *LUC*; *pāo-is* (*pāx*). So in verbs: *ī-s* for *īeis*, from *eō*, *īre*; *fātur* from *for*, *fārī*.

NOTE. — In these cases it is impossible to say with certainty whether the form of root in *a* or in *b* is the original one. But for convenience the above order is adopted.

c. With reduplication: as, *fur-fur*, *mar-mor*, *mur-mur*. So in verbs: as, *si-stō* (root *STA*).

2. From derived stems; see § 159.

II.—SUFFIXES.

159. Stems are derived from roots or from other stems by means of *suffixes*. These are :—

1. Primary: added to the root, or (in later times by analogy) to verb-stems. The root has either the weaker or the fuller vowel (cf. § 158. *a*, *b*).

2. Secondary: added to a noun- or adjective-stem.

Both primary and secondary suffixes are for the most part pronominal roots (§ 157. 2), but a few are of doubtful origin.

NOTE.—The distinction between primary and secondary suffixes, not being original (see p. 140, head-note), is constantly lost sight of in the development of a language. Suffixes once primary are used as secondary, and those once secondary are used as primary. Thus in *hosticus* (*hosti* + *cus*) the suffix *-cus*, originally *ka* (see § 160. 1) primary, as in *paucus*, has become secondary, and is thus regularly used to form derivatives; but in *pudicus*, *apricus*, it is treated as primary again, because these words were really or apparently connected with verbs. So in English *-able* was borrowed as a primary suffix, but also makes forms like *clubbable*, *saluble*; *-some* is properly a secondary suffix, as in *loisome*, *lonesome*, but makes also such words as *meddlesome*, *venturesome*.

1. Primary Suffixes.

160. The words in Latin formed immediately from the root by means of Primary suffixes, are few.

a. Inherited words so formed were mostly further developed by the addition of other suffixes, as we might make an adjective *lone-ly-some-ish*, meaning nothing more than *lone*, *lonely*, or *lonesome*.

b. By such accumulation of suffixes, new compound suffixes were formed which crowded out even the old types of derivation: thus—

A word like *mēns*, *mentis*, by the suffix *ōn-* (nom. *-ō*) gave *mentis*, and this being divided into *men* + *tiō*, gave rise to a new type of abstract nouns in *-tiō* (phonetically *-iō*): as, *lēgātis*, *embassy*.

A word like *auditor*, by the suffix *io-* (nom. *-ius*), gave rise to adjectives like *auditorius*, of which the neuter is used to denote the place where the action of the verb is performed. Hence *tōrio-* (nom. *-tōrium*), *N.*, becomes a regular suffix (§ 164. i. 5).

So in English such a word as *mechanically* gives a suffix *-ally*, making *telegraphically*, though there is no such word as *telegraphical*.

c. Examples of primary suffixes are:—

1. Vowel suffixes:—

a,¹ found in nouns and adjectives of *ā-* and *o-* stems, as *sonus*, *lūdus*, *vagus*, *scriba*, *toga* (root *TEG*).

i, less common, and in Latin frequently changed, as in *rūpēs*, or lost, as in *scoba* (*scobis*, root *SCAB*).

u, disguised in most adjectives by an additional *i*, as in *suā-vis* (for *tsuādus*, cf. *phōs*), *ten-uis* (root *TEN* in *tendō*), and remaining alone only in nouns of the fourth declension, as *acus* (root *AK*, *sharp*, in *acer*, *aciēs*, *ἀκρίς*), *pecū* (root *PAC*, *kind*, in *paciscor*).

2. Suffixes with a consonant:—

a. *ta* (in the form *to-*) in the regular perfect passive participle, as *tēctus*, *tēctum*; sometimes with an active sense, as in *pōtus*, *prānus*; and found in a few words not recognized as participles, as *pūtus* (cf. *pūrus*), *altus* (*alō*).

β. *ti* in abstracts and rarely in nouns of agency, as *messia*, *vestia*, *pars*, *mēns*. But in many the *i* is lost.

γ. *tu* in abstracts (including supines), sometimes becoming concretes, as *lētus*, *lūctus*.

δ. *na*, forming perfect participles in other languages, and in Latin making adjectives of like participial meaning, which often become nouns, as *māgnus* (= *māctus*, root *MAG*), *plēnus*, *rēgnum*.

ε. *ni*, in nouns of agency and adjectives, as *ignis*, *sēgnis*.

ζ. *nu*, rare, as in *manus*, *sinus*.

η. *ma* with various meanings, as in *animus*, *almus*, *firmus*, *forma*.

θ. *va* (commonly *uo-*) with an active or passive meaning, as in *equis*, *arvum*, *cōspicius*, *exiguus*, *vacivus* (*vacuus*).

ι. *ra* (or *la*, a passive participle termination in other languages), usually passive, as in *ager*, *integer*, *plāri-que* (= *plēnus* = *plētus*), *sella* (for *sed-la*, cf. *ἵppa*).

¹ Observe that it is the *stem*, not the *nominative*, that is formed by the suffix, although the nominative is here given for convenience of reference. The vowel in these suffixes is given as *a* to avoid puzzling questions of comparative grammar, though it had no doubt assumed the form *o*, even in the Parent Speech.

- z. *ya* (forming gerundives in other languages), in adjectives and abstracts, including many of the first and fifth declensions, as *eximius*, *audācia*, *Flārentia*, *perniciōs*.
- λ. *ka*, sometimes primary, as in *pauci* (cf. *ταῦτες*), *locus* (for *stlocus*). In many cases the vowel of this termination is lost, leaving a consonant-stem: as, *apex*, *cortex*, *loquāx*.
- μ. *an* (in-, *ōn-*), in nouns of agency and abstracts: as, *aspergō*, *compāgō* (*-inis*), *gerō* (*-ōnis*).
- ν. *man* (men-: also used in the form *men-* as a conscious derivative) expressing MEANS, often passing into the action itself: as, *āgmen*, *flūmen*.
- ξ. *tar*, forming nouns of AGENCY: as, *pater* (i.e. *protector*), *frāter* (i.e. *supporter*), *ōrātor*.
- ο. *tra*, forming nouns of MEANS: as, *claustrum*, *mūlotrum*.
- π. *as* (sometimes phonetically changed into *er-*, *or-*), forming names of actions: as, *genus*, *furor*.
- ρ. *ant*, forming active PARTICIPLES: as, *legōns*, with some adjectives from roots unknown: as, *frequēns*, *recēns*.

The above, with some suffixes given below, belong to the Indo-European parent speech, and most of them were not felt as living formations in the Latin.

2. Significant Endings.

161. Both primary and secondary suffixes, especially in the form of compound suffixes, were used in Latin with more or less consciousness of their meaning. They may therefore be called Significant Endings.

They form: 1. Nouns of Agency; 2. Names of Action; 3. Adjectives (active or passive).

NOTE. — There is really no difference in etymology between an adjective and a noun, except that some formations are habitually used as adjectives and others as nouns (§ 53. 5, note).

III.—DERIVATION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

1. Nouns of Agency.

162. Nouns of Agency properly denote the *agent* or *doer* of an action. But they include many words in which the idea of agency has entirely faded out, and also many words used as adjectives. Their significant endings are:—

a. *-tor* (*-sor*), M., *-trix*, F., added to roots or verb-stems to denote the *agent* or *doer* of an action.

canō, *sing* (CAN, supine *toantum*); **cantor**, *singer*; **cantrix**, *songstress*.

vincō (VIC, supine *victum*), *conquer*: **victor**, **victrix**, *conqueror* (*victorious*).

tondeō, *shear* (TOND as root, sup. *tōnsum*): **tōnsor**, **tōnstrix**, *hair-cutter*.

petō, *seek* (**peti-** as stem, sup. *petitum*): **petitor**, *candidate*.

senātor (lost verb *†senō*, *-āre*), *senator*.

By analogy **-tor** is sometimes added to noun-stems, but these may be stems of lost verbs (cf. **senātor** above): as, **viātor**, *traveller*, from *via*, *way* (but cf. **inviō**).

NOTE 1. — The termination **-tor** (**-sor**) has the same phonetic change as the supine ending **-tum** (**-sum**) (p. 121. 3), and is added to the same form of root or verb-stem as that ending (see § 125).

NOTE 2. — The feminine form is always **-trix**. Masculines in **-sor** lack the feminine, except **expulsor** (**expultrix**) and **tōnsor** (**tōnstrix**).

NOTE 3. — **-tor** is an inherited termination (cf. §, p. 143). The feminine is a further formation in **-ca** which has lost its final vowel (cf. § 160. λ).

b. t- (originally **ta-**, cf. § 160. α), **C.**, added to verb-stems making nouns in **-es** (**-itis**, **-etis**, stem **-it-**, **-et-**) descriptive of a character: as, —

miles (verb-stem *mīle-*, as in *mille*, *thousand*), *a soldier* (man of the crowd).

teges (verb-stem *tege-*, cf. *tegō*, *cover*), *a coverer*, *a mat*.

comes, **-itis** (**con-** and *meō*, *go*, cf. *trāmes*, *sēmita*), *a companion*.

c. -ō (gen. **-ōnis**, stem **ōn-**), **M.**, added to stems conceived as verb-stems (but perhaps originally noun-stems) to indicate a person employed in some specific art or trade: as, —

gerō (**GES** in *gerō*, *gerere*, *carry*. but compare **-ger** in *armiger* (*squire*), *a carrier*).

com-bibō (**BIB** as root in *bibō*, *bibere*, *drink*), *a pot-companion*.

NOTE. — This termination is also used to form many nouns descriptive of personal characteristics (cf. § 164. γ).

2. Names of Actions.

163. Names of Actions are confused, through their suffixes, with real abstract nouns and nouns denoting means and instruments. They are derived (1) apparently or really from roots and verb-stems (*primary*) or (2) from noun-stems (*secondary*).

1. Significant endings giving real or apparent primary formations are:—

a. -or (st. ōr-, earlier ōs-), M., -ēs (gen. -is, st. i-, earlier es-), F., -us (st. ōs-, earlier es- or os-), N., added to roots or forms conceived as roots: as, —

timeō, *fear*; tim-or, *dread*.

sedeō, *sit*; sēd-ēs, *seat*.

decet, *it is becoming*; dec-us, *grace, beauty*.

†facinō (old form of faciō, *do*); facin-us, *a deed*.

NOTE. — Many nouns of this class are formed by analogy from imaginary roots: as, facinus above (from a supposed root FACIN).

b. -iō (st. iōn-), -tiō (st. tiōn-), -tūra (st. tūrā-), F., -tus (st. tu-), M., (phonetically -siō, -sūra, -sus), apparently added to roots or verb-stems, making *verbal abstracts* which easily pass into *concretes*.

legō, *gather, enroll*; leg-iō, *a legion* (originally, the annual *conscriptio*).

regō, *direct*; reg-iō, *a direction, a region*.

inserō (SA), *implant*; insi-tiō, *grafting*.

vocō, *call*; v cā-tiō, *a calling*.

mōlior, *toil*; mōli-tiō, *a toiling*.

pingō (PIG), *paint*; pīc-tūra, *a painting*.

sentiō, *feel*; sēn-sus (for sent-tus, § 11. a. 2), *perception*.

fruor, *enjoy* (for †fruguor); frūc-tus, *enjoyment, fruit*.

NOTE 1. — -tiō, -tūra, -tus are added to roots or verb-stems precisely as -tor, with the same phonetic change. Hence they are conveniently associated with the supine stem (see p. 121). They sometimes form nouns when there is no corresponding verb in use: as, senātus, *senate* (cf. senex); mentiō, *mention* (cf. mōns); fētūra, *offspring* (cf. fētus); litterātūra, *literature* (cf. litterae); cōsulātus, *consulship* (cf. cōsul).

NOTE 2. — Of these endings, -tus was originally primary (cf. § 160. γ); -iō is a compound formed by adding ōn- to a stem ending in a vowel (originally i); as, diciō (cf. -dīcus and dīcis); -tiō is a compound formed by adding ōn- to stems in ti-; as, gradātīō (cf. gradātīm); -tūra is formed by adding -ra, feminine of -rus, to stems in tu-; as, nātūra from nātus; statūra from status (cf. āgūra, of like meaning, from a simple u-stem, †āgu-s; and mātūrus, Mātūta).

c. -men, -mentum, -mōnium, N., -mōnia, F., apparently added to roots or verb-stems to denote ACTS, or MEANS and RESULTS of acts.

ag, root of agō, *lead*; āg-men, *line of march*.

regi- (stem seen in regō, *direct*); { regi-men, *rule*.
regi-mentum, *rule*.

So oolu-men, *pillar*; mō-men, *movement*; nō-men, *name*.

fruor, *enjoy*; frū-mentum, *grain*.

testor, *witness*; testi-mōnium, *testimony*.

queror, *complain*; queri-mōnia, *complaint* (but see note).

Almōn (M.), a *priest* (from *flō*, *blow*, in reference to the sacrificial fire).

REMARK: -*mōnium* and -*mōnia* are also used as secondary, forming nouns from other nouns and from adjectives: as, *sancti-mōnia*, *sanctity* (*sanctus*, *holy*); *mātri-mōnium*, *marriage* (*māter*, *mother*).

NOTE.—Of these endings, -*mēn* is primary (cf. § 160. v); -*mentum* is a further development of -*mēn* made by adding *to-*, and appears for the most part later in the language than -*mēn*: as, *mōmen*, *movement* (*Lucr.*); *mōmentum* (*later*). So *elementum* is a development from *L-M-N-a*, *L-m-n's* (letters of the alphabet), changed to *elementa* along with other nouns in -*mēn*. -*mōnium* and -*mōnia* are compound secondary suffixes formed from *mo-*, as in the series *almus*, *fostering*; *Almōn*, a river near Rome; *alimōnia*, *support*. But the last was formed from *alō* later, when -*mōnia* had become established as a supposed primary suffix.

d. -*bulum*, -*culum*, -*brum*, -*crum*, -*trum*, N., added to verb-stems or roots (rarely to noun-stems), to denote MEANS OR INSTRUMENT: as, —

pāsoō, *feed*; *pā-bulum*, *fodder*.

stō, *stand*; *sta-bulum*, *stall*.

tūs (gen. *tūris*), *incense*; *tūri-bulum*, *a censor*.

vooō, *call*; *vocā-bulum*, *a name, a word*.

lateō, *hide*; *lati-bulum*, *hiding-place*.

vehō, *carry*; *vehi-culum*, *wagon*.

piō, *purify*; *piā-culum*, *an expiation*.

cernō (*orōvī*), *sift*; *orī-brum*, *sieve*.

flō, *blow*; *flā-bra* (pl.), *blasts*.

candēla, *a candle*; *candēlā-brum*, *a candlestick*.

ambulō, *walk*; *ambulā-crum*, *place for walking*.

sepeliō, *bury*; *sepul-crum*, *tomb*.

simulō, *pretend*; *simulā-crum*, *image*.

claudō, *shut*; *claus-trum*, *a bar*.

arō, *I plough*; *arā-trum*, *a plough*.

A few Masculines and Feminines of the same formation occur as nouns and adjectives: as, —

for, *speak*; *flā-bula*, *tale*.

ridēō, *laugh*; *ridi-culus*, *laughable*.

faciō, *make*; *fa-ber*, *smith*.

lateō, *hide*; *late-bra*, *hiding-place*.

terō, *love*; *tere-bra*, *auger*.

mulgeō, *suck*; *mūlo-tra*, *milk-pail*.

ātrō, *burn*; *Aus-ter*, *South wind*.

NOTE.—There are no doubt compound nominal suffixes, *bo- + lo-*, *co- + lo-*, *bo- + ro-*, *co- + ro-*, *to- + ro-*, but the series cannot be distinctly made out. They had become fully welded into independent suffixes before the historical period.

2. Significant endings entirely secondary forming Abstract nouns are:—

e. -ia, -tia (-iēs, -tiēs), -tās, -tūs, -tūdō, F., added to adjective stems and a few to nouns. So -dō and -gō, F., but associated with verbs, and apparently added to verb-stems. Thus:—

audāx, *bold*; audāc-ia, *boldness*. So fidūc-ia, *confidence* (†fidūx).

prūdens, *wise*; prūden-tia, *wisdom*.

superbus, *proud*; superb-ia, *pride*.

tristis, *sad*; tristi-tia, *sadness*.

pauper, *poor*; pauper-iēs, *poverty*.

sēgnis, *lazy*; sēgni-tiēs, *laziness*.

bonus, *good*; boni-tās, *goodness*.

civis, *citizen*; civi-tās, *citizenship*.

senex, *old*; senec-tūs, *age*.

sōlus, *alone*; sōli-tūdō, *solitude*.

dulcis, *sweet*; dulcē-dō, *sweetness* (probably from a lost stem dulcē-, cf. dulcē-scō).

cupīdō, *I desire*; cupī-dō (as if from stem cupī-, cf. cupī-vī).

lumbus, *the loin*; lumbā-gō, *lumbago* (as if from †lumbō, -āre).

plumbum, *lead*; plumbā-gō, *black lead*.

rubus, *bramble* (red bush); rūbī-gō, *rust* (redness).

prūriō, *itch*; prūri-gō, *itching*.

albus, *white*; albū-gō, *a disease of the eyes* (whiteness, as if from †albuō).

Stems ending in o- or ā- lose these vowels before -ia (as superb-ia), and change them to i before -tās, -tūs, -tia (as boni-tās, above).

Consonant-stems often insert -i before -tās: as, loquāx (stem loquāc-), loquāc-i-tās; but hones-tās, māles-tās (as if from old adjectives in -es), ūber-tās, volup-tās. o after i is changed to e: as, pius (stem piō-), pie-tās; socius, socie-tās (see § 11. e).

NOTE.—Of these, -ia is inherited as secondary (cf. § 160. κ); -tia is formed by adding -ia to stems with a t-suffix: as, militia, from miles (st. milit-); molestia from molestus; clementia from clemens; whence by analogy, mali-tia, avāri-tia. -tās is inherited, but its component parts, ta- + ti-, are found as suffixes in the same sense: as, senectē from senex; sēmen-tis from sēmen. -tūs is tū- + ti-, cf. servitū-dō. -dō and -gō appear only with long vowels, as from verb-stems, by a false analogy; but -dō is do- + ōn-; as, cupidus, cupīdō; gravidus, gravēdō (cf. gravē-scō); albidus, albēdō (cf. albē-scō); formidus, *hot*, formīdō (cf. formīdulōsus), (*hot flash?*) fear; -gō is possibly go- + ōn-; cf. vorāx, vorāgō, but cf. Cethēsus. -tūdō is compounded of -dō with tu-stems, which acquire a long vowel from association with verb-stems in u- (cf. volūmen, from voluō); as, cōsensu-tūdō, valētūdō, habitu-tūdō, solitū-tūdō; whence servitūdō (cf. servitās, -tutis).

f. -ium, -tium, added to noun- and perhaps verb-stems, forming *neuter abstracts*, which easily pass into *concretes* denoting OFFICES and GROUPS: as, —

hospes (gen. hospit-is), a guest; hospit-ium, hospitality, an inn.

servus, a slave; servi-tium, slavery, the slave class.

collēga, a colleague; collēg-ium, colleagueship, a college.

auspex, a soothsayer; auspic-ium, soothsaying, an omen.

gaudeō, rejoice; gaud-ium, joy.

benefaciō, benefit; benefic-ium, a kindness (but cf. *beneficulus*).

dē-siderō, miss (from †dē-sidēs, out of place, of missing soldiers)

dē-sider-ium, longing.

effugiō, escape; effug-ium, an escape (cf. *profugus*).

ad verbum, [added] to a verb; adverb-ium, an adverb.

inter lūnās, between moons; interlūn-ium, time of new moon.

rēgis fuga, flight of a king; rēgifug-ium, flight of kings.

Vowel-stems lose their vowel before -ium, as collēg-ium, from collēga.

NOTE. — -ium, neuter of -ius (§ 164. *g.*), -ia (cf. *e.*), is an inherited primary suffix (cf. § 160. *κ*), but is used with great freedom as secondary; -tium is formed like -tia, by adding -ium to stems with *t*: as, exit-ium, equit-ium (cf. *exitus*, *equitēs*); so, by analogy, calvi-tium, servi-tium (from *calvus*, *servus*).

g. Less commonly -nia, *F.*, -nium, -llium, -cinium, *N.*, added to noun-stems, but confused with verb-stems: as, —

pecū, cattle; pecū-nia, money (chattels).

conticiēscō, hush; contici-nium; the hush of night

augeō, increase; auxi-llium, help.

pecū, cattle; pecū-llium, private property (cf. *pecūlor*, implying a noun †pecūlum).

lātrō, robber; lātrō-cinium, robbery (cf. *lātrōcinor*, rob, implying an adj. †lātrōcinus).

3. Adjectives.

164. Derivative adjectives are *Nominal* (from nouns or adjectives) or *Verbal* (as from roots or verb-stems).

Their significant endings are: —

I. NOMINAL.

a. -ulus (-a, -um) (after a vowel -olus), -ulus, -ellus, -illus, making an important class of adjectives, which are usually appropriated to one gender, that of the Primitive, and used as *Diminutive Nouns*: as, —

rivus, a brook; **riv-ulus**, a streamlet.
gladius, a sword; **gladi-olus**, a small sword.
filius, a son; **filii-olus**, a little son.
filia, a daughter; **filii-ola**, a little daughter.
atrium, a hall; **atri-olum**, a little hall.
homō, a man; **homun-culus**, a dwarf.
auris, an ear; **auri-cula**, a little ear.
mūnus, N., a gift; **mūnus-culum**, a little gift.
puera (cf. **puer**, a boy); **puella** (for **puer-ula**), a girl.
cōdex, a block; **cōdic-illī**, writing-tablets.
miser, wretched; **mis-ellus**, rather wretched.
liber, a book; **lib-ellus**, a little book.
aureus (-a, -um), golden; **aure-olus** (-a, -um), golden.
parvus (-a, -um), little; **parv-olus** (later **periv-ulus**), very small.
māior (old **māiōs**), greater; **māius-culus**, somewhat larger.

NOTE 1.—These are all formed by adding **-lus** (originally **-rus**, cf. § 160. i) to various stems, forming adjectives. The formation is the same as that of **-ulus** in / below. But these words became settled as diminutives, and retained their connection with nouns. So in English the diminutives *whitish*, *reddish*, are of the same formation as *bookish* and *snappish*. **-culus** comes from **-lus** added to adjectives in **-cus** formed from stems in **n-** and **s-**: as, **iuvē-cus**, **Aurun-cus** (cf. **Aurun-culōs**), **pris-cus**, whence the **cu** becomes a part of the termination, and the whole ending is used elsewhere, but mostly with **n-** and **s-** stems, in accordance with its origin.

NOTE 2.—Diminutives are often used to express affection, pity, or contempt: as, **dōliciolae**, little pet; **mullercula**, a poor (feeble) woman; **homunculus**, wretched man.

REMARK: **-ciō**, added to stems in **n-**, has the same diminutive force, but is added to masculines only: as, **homun-ciō**, a dwarf (from **homō**, a man).

b. **-adēs**, M., **-ās**, F., **-idēs**, **-idēs**, M., **-is**, **-is**, F., **-ūs**, **-eus**, M., added to proper names, forming **PATRONYMICS** to indicate *descent* or *relationship*.

These, originally Greek adjectives, have almost all become nouns in Latin: as,—

Tyndareus: **Tyndar-idēs**, *Castor or Pollux*; **Tyndar-is**, *Helen*, daughter of *Tyndarus*.

Atlās: **Atlanti-adēs**, *Mercury*; **Atlanti-adēs** (Gr. pl.), *the Pleiads*.

Scīpiō: **Scīpi-adēs**, *son of Scīpio*.

Anchīsēs: **Anchīsī-adēs**, *Aeneas*.

Thēseus: **Thēs-idēs**, *son of Theseus*.

Tydeus: **Tyđ-idēs**, *Diomedes, son of Tydeus*.

Oilēus: **Alēx Oil-ēs**, *son of Oilēus*.

Thaumās: **Thaumanti-ās**, *Iris, daughter of Thaumās.*

Hesperus: **Hesper-ides** (from **Hesper-is, -idis**), *F. pl., the daughters of Hesperus, the Hesperides.*

c. **-ānus, -ēnus, -īnus**; **-ās, -ēnsis, -ācus (-ācus), -īcus**; **-ūs** generally shortened to **-ūs**), **-īus, -īcius**, forming adjectives with the sense of **BELONGING TO**.

1. So from common nouns: as, —

mōns (st. **monti-**), *mountain*; **mont-ānus**, *of the mountains.*

vetus (st. **veter-**), *old*; **veter-ānus**, *veteran.*

ante lūcem, *before light*; **antelūc-ānus**, *before daylight.*

egēō, *lack*; **eg-ēnus**, *needy* (see note below).

terra, *earth*; **terr-ēnus**, *earthly.*

sērus, *late*; **ser-ēnus**, *calm* (of evening stillness).

collis, *hill*; **coll-īnus**, *of a hill.*

divus, *god*; **div-īnus**, *divine.*

libertus, *one's freedman*; **libert-īnus**, *of the class of freedmen.*

vitulus, *a calf*; **vitul-īna** (sc. **carō**), *veal.*

quis, *who*? **cūlī-ās**, *of what country?*

īnfimū, *lowest*; **īnfim-ās**, *of the lowest rank.*

forum, *a market-place*; **for-ēnsis**, *of a market-place, or the Forum.*

merum, *pure wine*; **mer-ācus**, *pure.*

cīvis, *a citizen*; **cīv-īcus**, *civic, of a citizen.*

fullō, *a fuller*; **fullōn-īcus**, *of a fuller.*

fēmina, *a woman*; **fēmin-eus**, *of a woman, feminine.*

lāo, *milk* (st. **lacti-**); **lact-eus**, *milky.*

plēbēs, *the commons*; **plēb-īus**, *of the commons, plebeian.*

pater, *father*; **patr-īcius**, *patrician.*

2. But especially from proper nouns (names of places, peoples, and persons), denoting **BELONGING TO** or **COMING FROM**: as, —

Rōma: **Rōm-ānus**, *Roman.*

Sulla: **Sull-ānī**, *Sulla's veterans.*

Cyzicus: **Cyzic-ēnī**, *Cyzicenes, people of Cyzicus.*

Liguria: **Ligur-īnus**, *of Liguria.*

Arpinum: **Arpīn-ās**, *of Arpinum* (cf. **Samnium**: **Samnīs**, gen. **-ītis**, *a Samnite*).

Sicilia: **Sicili-ēnīs**, *Sicilian.*

Ilium, *Troy*; **Ili-acus**, *Trojan* (a Greek form).

Platō: **Platōn-īcus**, *Platonic.*

Aquila: **Aquil-īus**, *a Roman name*; **Aquilīa**, *a town in Italy.*

3. Many derivative adjectives with these endings have by usage become nouns. Thus,—

silva, woods; *Silv-ānus*, M., a god of the woods.

membrum, limb; *membr-āna*, F., skin.

Aemilia (gēna); *Aemili-ānus*, M., name of Scipio Africanus.

lanius, butcher; *lāni-ēna*, F., a butcher's stall.

† *Aufidius* (*Aufidus*), M.; *Aufidi-ēnus*, a Roman name.

incola, an inhabitant; *inquit-Inus*, M., a lodger.

caecus, blind; *Caeco-Ina*, used as M., a Roman name.

gallus, a cock; *gall-Ina*, F., a hen.

ruō, fall (no noun existing); *ru-Ina*, F., a fall.

doctor, teacher; *doctr-Ina*, F., learning.

NOTE.—Of these terminations, *-ānus*, *-ēnus*, *-inus* are compounded from *-nus* added to a stem-vowel: as, *arca*, *arcānus*; *collis*, *collinus*. The long vowels come from a confusion with verb-stems, as in *piē-nus*, *fini-tus*, *tribū-tus*, assisted by the noun-stem in *ē*—as, *arcē-nus*. A few nouns occur of similar formation, as from verb-stems in *ō*—(which were lost in the later language) and in *ū*—as, *colō-nus* (*colō*, cf. *incola*), *patrō-nus* (cf. *patrō*, *-āre*), *tribū-nus* (cf. *tribūō*, *tribus*), *Portū-nus* (cf. *portus*), *Vacū-na* (cf. *vacō*, *vacuus*).

d. -ālis, *-āris*, *-ēlis*, *-ilis*, *-ūlis*, *-nus*, PERTAINING TO, of various modes of relation or possession, but not used as Gentile adjectives: as,

nātūra, nature; *nātūr-ālis*, natural.

populus, a people; *popul-āris*, fellow-countryman.

patruus, uncle; *patru-ēlis*, cousin.

hostis, an enemy; *host-ilis*, hostile.

currus, chariot; *sella cur-ūlis*, curule chair.

vēr, spring; *vēr-nus*, vernal.

NOTE.—*-nus* is inherited (cf. § 160. δ) and used as secondary. The others are weakened forms of *ra-* (§ 160. t) added to various vowel-stems. The long vowel comes partly from confusion with verb-stems, cf. *Aprilis* (*aperiō*), *edūlis* (*edō*), and the suffix is afterwards used indiscriminately, as in *senilis* (*senex*).

e. -ter (*-tris*), *-ester* (*-estris*), *-timus*, *-ernus*, *-urnus*, *-ternus* (*-turnus*), BELONGING TO, of places, times, and the like (but some are general adjectives).

pālūs, a marsh; *pālūs-ter*, of the marshes.

pedes, a footman; *pedes-ter*, of the foot.

sex mēnsēs, six months; *sēmēs-tris*, semi-annual.

silva, a wood; *silv-ester*, *silv-estris*, woody.

finis, an end; *fini-timus*, neighboring, on the borders.

heri (old *hesi*), yesterday; *hes-ternus*, of yesterday.

diū, long (in time); *diū-turnus*, lasting.

hodiē, to-day; *hodi-ernus*, of to-day.

diēs, day; *di-urnus*, daily.

NOTE.—Of these, *-ester* is formed by adding *tri-* (cf. *tro-*, § 160) to stems in *t-* or *d-* (phonetically *s-*). Thus *pedet-tri-* becomes *pedestri-*, and others follow the analogy. *-ernus* and *-urnus* are formed by adding *-nus* to *s-*stems: as, *diur-nus* (for *†dius-nus*), and hence, by analogy, *hodiernus* (*hodiē*).

f. -ātus, -ītus, -ūtus, PROVIDED WITH, making adjectives with participial ending, formed from nouns, but in reference to an imaginary verb-stem (cf. the English *horned, crested, hooked*).

barba, a beard; barb-ātus, bearded.

auris, an ear; aur-ītus, long-eared.

versus, a turning; vers-ūtus, crafty, adroit (full of turns).

So -tus, added directly to nouns without reference to any verb: as, -

fūnus, death; fūnes-tus, deadly.

honor, honor; hones-tus, honorable.

favor, favor; faus-tus (for *†faves-tus*), *favorable.*

g. -eus, -ius, -āceus, -icius, -āneus (*-neus*), *-ticus*, MADE OF OR BELONGING TO, forming adjectives of very various meanings: as, —

aurum, gold; aur-eus, golden.

pater, a father; patri-us, paternal.

uxor, a wife; uxōr-ius, uxorious.

rosa, a rose; ros-āceus, of roses.

later, a brick; later-icius, of brick.

praesēns, present; praesent-āneus, operating instantly.

extrā, without; extr-āneus, external.

sub terrā, underground; subterr-āneus, subterranean.

salix, willow; salig-neus, of willow.

volō, fly; volā-ticus, winged (*volātus, a flight*).

domus, a house; domes-ticus, of the house, domestic.

silva, a wood; silvā-ticus, sylvan.

NOTE.—*-ius* is originally primitive (§ 160. κ); *-icius* and *-āceus* are formed by adding *-ius* and *-eus* to stems in *i-c-*, *ā-c-* (suffix *co-*, orig. *ka-*, § 160. λ); *-eus* corresponds to Greek *-εως, -εος*, and has lost a *y*-sound (cf. *ya-*, § 160. κ). *-neus* is *no-* + *-eus* (§ 160. δ); *-āneus* is formed by adding *-neus* to *ā*-stems. For *-ticus*, see § 159. n.

h. -ārius, -tōrius (*-sōrius*), BELONGING TO, making many adjectives often fixed as nouns (see 1)

ōrdō, rank, order; ordin-ārius, regular.

argentum, silver; argent-ārius, of silver or money.

extrā, outside; extr-ārius, stranger.

meritus, earned; meri-tōrius, profitable.

dēvoraus, turned aside; dēvor-sōrius, of an inn (cf. 1. 5).

NOTE.—Here *-ius* (§ 160. κ) is added to shorter forms in *-āris* and *-or*: as, *pecūliārius* (from *pecūliāris*), *bellētōrius* (from *bellētōr*).

i. Many fixed forms of the above adjective suffixes make nouns more or less regularly used in particular senses: as, —

1. -ārius (regular), *person employed about anything*: as, —

argent-ārius, *silversmith, broker* (from argentum).

2. -āria, *thing connected with something*: —

arēn-āriae, F. pl., *sandpits* (from arēna, sand).

asin-āria, F., *name of a play* (from asinus, ass).

3. -ārium (regular), *place of a thing* (with a few of more general meaning): as, —

aer-ārium, N., *treasury* (from aes, copper).

tepid-ārium, N., *warm bath* (from tepidus, warm).

sūd-ārium, N., *a towel* (cf. sūdō, -āre, sweat).

sal-ārium, N., *salt money, salary* (from sāl, salt).

calend-ārium, N., *a note-book* (from calendae, calends).

4. -tōria (-sōria): as, —

Agitā-tōria, F., *a play of Plautus, The Carter* (from agitātor).

vor sōria, F., *a tack* (from vorsus, a turn).

5. -tōrium (-sōrium) (regular), *place of action* (with a few of more general meaning): as, —

dēvor-sōrium, N., *an inn* (as from dēvortō, turn aside).

audi-tōrium, N., *a lecture-room* (as from audiō, hear).

ten-tōrium, N., *a tent* (as from tendō, stretch).

tēc-tōrium, N., *plaster* (as from tegō, tēctus, cover).

por-tōrium, N., *toll* (cf. portō, carry, and portus, harbor).

6. -ile, *animal-stall*: as, —

bov-ile, N., *cattle-stall* (bōs, bōvis, ox, cow).

ov-ile, *sheep-fold* (ovis, st. ovi-, sheep).

7. -al for -āle, *thing connected with the primitive*: as, —

capit-al, N., *headdress, capital crime* (caput, head).

penetr-āle (esp. in pl.), N., *inner apartment* (cf. penetrō).

Sāturn-ālia N. pl. (the regular form for names of festivals), *feast of Saturn* (from Sāturnus).

8. -ētum, N. (cf. -ātus, -ūtus, see f), *place of a thing*: as, —

querc-ētum, N., *oak grove* (from quercus, oak).

Argil-ētum, N., *The Clay-pit* (from argilla, clay).

9. **-ous** (sometimes with inserted **i**, **-ious**), **-ious**, in any one of the genders, with various meanings: as, —

vili-ous, M., **vili-ia**, F., a *steward* (*stewardess*) (from **villa**, *farm house*).

fabr-ia, F., a *workshop* (from **faber**, *workman*).

būbul-ous, M., *ox-tender* (from **būb-ulus**, dim., cf. **bōs**, *ox*).

cant-icūm, N., *song* (from **cantus**, *act of singing*).

rubr-ia, F., *red paint* (from **ruber**, *red*).

10. **-eus**, **-ea**, **-eum**, with various meanings: as, —

alv-eus, M., a *trough* (from **alvus**, *the belly*).

capr-ea, F., a *roe* (from **caper**, *he-goat*).

flamm-eum, N., a *bridal veil* (from **flamma**, *flame*, from its color).

11. **-ium**, confounded with the primary suffix (see § 163. f).

12. **-ter** (stem **tro-**) and **-ter** (stem **tri-**), **-aster** **-ester**: as, —

Aus-ter, M., *South wind* (from **ārō**, *burn*).

eques-ter, M., *knight* (for **tequet-ter**, see *e*, note).

sequ-ester, M., a *stake-holder* (from derivative of **sequor**, *follow*).

ole-aster, M., *wild olive* (from **olea**) (cf. **surd-aster**, from **surdus**).

k. **-ōsus**, **-(o)lēns**, **-(o)lentus**, FULL OF, PRONE TO: as, —

flūctus, *wave*; **flūctu-ōsus**, *billowy*.

forma, *beauty*; **form-ōsus**, *beautiful*.

periculum, *peril*; **pericul-ōsus**, *full of danger*.

pestis, *pest*; **pesti-lēns**, **pesti-lentus**, *pestilent*.

vīnum, *wine*; **vīno-lentus**, **vīn-ōsus**, *given to drink*.

II. VERBAL.

1. **-āx**, **-idus**, **-ulus**, **-vus** (**-us**, **-ivus**, **-tivus**), PRONE TO, FITTED TO, apparently¹ added to verb-stems, forming adjectives, to express the action of a verb as a QUALITY or TENDENCY. **-āx** denotes a *faulty* or *aggressive* tendency; **-tivus** is oftener *passive*. Thus, —

pugnō, *to fight*; **pugn-āx**, *pugnacious*.

audeō, *to dare*; **aud-āx**, *bold*.

cupiō, *to desire*; **cup-idus**, *eager*.

bibō, *to drink*; **bib-ulus**, *thirsty* (as dry earth, etc.).

prōterō, *to trample*; **proter-vus**, *violent, wanton*.

noceō, *do harm*; **noc-uus** (**noc-ivus**), *hurtful, injurious*.

capīō, *take*; **cap-tivus**, *captive*, M., a *prisoner of war*.

recidō, *fall back*; **recid-ivus**, *restored*.

¹ The forms felt as verbal are, like the nominal forms, derived from noun-stems, and the two are constantly confounded.

NOTE.—Of these, *-ix* is a reduction of *-lous* (stem-vowel *l* + *-ous*), become independent and used with verb-stems. Similar forms in *-ix*, *-ox*, *-ix*, and *-ix* are found or implied in derivatives: as, *imbrex*, *M.*, a rain-fall (from *imber*); *senex*, *old* (from *seni-s*); *ferōx*, *ferce* (from *ferus*); *atrox*, *savage* (from *āter*, *black*); *celōx*, *F.*, a yacht (cf. *cello*); *fēlix*, *happy*, orig. *fertile* (from *fēlō*, *suck* [?]); *fiducia*, *F.*, *confidence* (as from *fīdūx*); cf. also *victrix* (from *victor*). So *manducūs*, *chewing* (from *mandō*).

-idus is no doubt denominative, as in *herbi-dus*, *herb*; *tumidus*, *swollen* (cf. *tumu-lus*, *hill*; *tumul-tus*, *uproar*); *callidus*, *tough, cunning* (cf. *callum*, *tough flesh*); *mucl-dus*, *slimy* (cf. *muclous*, *slime*); *tābidus*, *wasting* (cf. *tābēs*, *wasting disease*). But later it was used to form adjectives directly from verb-stems.

-ulus is the same suffix as in diminutives, but attached to verb-stems. Cf. *aemulus*, *rivalling* (cf. *imitor* and *imāgō*); *sēdulus*, *sitting by, attentive* (cf. *domi-seda*, *home-staying*, and *sēdō*, *calm*); *pendulus*, *hanging* (cf. *pondō*, *abl.*, *in weight*; *perpendicularum*, *a plummet*; *appendix*, *an addition*); *strāgulus*, *covering* (cf. *strāgēs*); *legulus*, *a picker* (cf. *sacri-legus*, *a picker up of things sacred*). But they were thoroughly attached to verbs.

-vus seems originally primary (cf. § 160. θ), but *-ivus* and *-tivus* have become secondary and are used with nouns: as, *aestivus*, *o, summer* (from *aestus*, *heat*); *tempestivus*, *timely* (from *tempus*); cf. *domes-ticus* (from *domus*).

m. *-ilis*, *-bilis*, *-ius*, *-tilis*, (*-silis*), expressing PASSIVE QUALITIES, but occasionally active: as,—

frangō (FRAG), *break*; *frag-ilis*, *frail*.

nōscō (GNO), *know*; *nō-bilis*, *well known, famous*.

eximō, *take out, select*; *exim-ius*, *choice, rare* (cf. *ē-greg-ius*)

agō, *drive*; *ag-ilis*, *active*.

habeō, *hold*; *hab-ilis*, *handy*.

alō, *nourish*; *al-tilis*, *fattened* (see note).

NOTE.—Of these, *-ius* is primary, but is also used as secondary (cf. § 163. f). *-ilis* is certainly secondary: as, *similis*, *like* (cf. *ὅμος*, Eng. *same*); *agilis*, *active* (cf. *prōdīgus*, *σπαρτήγος*, so *agō* + *-ilis*); *facilis*, *easy* (cf. *bene-ficus*); *fragilis*, *frail* (cf. *foederi-fragus*). *-bilis* also is probably *bo-* + *-ilis* (cf. *-bus* in *morbus*, *-bulum*, *-bundus*, *-brum*, *-bris*; cf. also *-ilis* and *-tilis*); in *-tilis* and *-silis*, *-lis* is added to *to-* (*so-*), stem of the perfect participle: as, *fōssilis*, *dug up* (from *fōssus*, *dug*); *volātilis*, *winged* (from *volātus*, *flight*).

n. *-minus*, *-mnus*. These endings are properly *participial* (cf. Greek *-μενος*, and *amā-minī*). They form a few nouns in which the participial force is discernible: as,—

FE, *produce*; *fē-mina*, *woman* (the producer).

alō, *nourish*; *alu-mnus*, *a foster child, nursling*.

o. *-ndus* (the same as the gerund-ending) forms a few *active* or *re-flexive* adjectives: as,—

sequor, *follow*; *secu-ndus*, *second* (the following), *favorable*.

rotō, *whirl* (from *rota*, *wheel*); *rotu-ndus*, *round* (whirling¹).

¹ Compare *volvendīs mēnsibus*, in the revolving months (Virg.).

NOTE.—This suffix is no doubt on-+*-dus*: as, *†gerus* (st. *gerō*, cf. *armiger*), *gerō* (st. *gerōn-*), *†gerondus* (cf. *-bundus* and *-cundus*; and *turunda*, a *paste-ball*).

p. -bundus, -cundus, with a *participial* meaning, but denoting *continuance* of the act or quality.

locus, a *jest*; *iū-cundus*, *pleasant* (cf. *iuvō*, *-āre*).

vītō, *shun*; *vītā-bundus*, *dodging about*.

tremō, *tremble*; *treme-bundus*, *trembling*.

morior, *die*; *mori-bundus*, *at the point of death*.

for, *speak*; *fā-cundus*, *eloquent*.

FE, *produce*; *fē-cundus*, *fruitful*.

So ira, *anger*; *Irā-cundus*, *irascible* (cf. *Irā-scor*).

NOTE.—These must have been originally nominal; as in the series, *rubus*, *red bush*; *rubidus* (but no *trubicus*), *red*; *Rubicon*, *Red River* (cf. *Miniō*, a *river of Etruria*; *Minius*, a *river of Lusitania*); *rubicundus* (as in *averruncus*, *homunculus*). *So turba*, *commotion*; *tur'ō*, a *top*; *turbidus*, *roily*, etc. *Cāpexabō*, *longābō*, *gravēdō*, *dulcēdō*.

III. IRREGULAR DERIVATIVES.

q. The primary suffix *ōn-* (nom. *-ō*) is used as secondary to form nouns denoting *POSSESSED OF* (originally adjectives), and so expressing a *character*, and often used as *proper names*:¹ as, —

epulae, a *feast*; *epul-ō*, a *feaster*.

nāsus, a *nose*; *nās-ō*, with a *large nose* (also as a proper name).

-volus (in *bene-volus*), *wishing*; *vol-ōnēs* (pl.), *volunteers*.

frōus, *forehead*; *front-ō*, *big-head* (also as a proper name).

So cūria, a *curia*; *cūri-ō*, *head of a curia* (also as proper name).

restis, a *rope*; *resti-ō*, a *rope-maker*.

†vespertilis, of the *evening*; *vespertili-ō*, a *bat*.

r. Rarely suffixes are added to compound stems imagined, but not used in their compound form: as, —

ad-verb-ium, *adverb*; *ad*, *to*, and *verbum*, *verb*, but without the intervening *†adverbus*.

lāti-fund-ium, *large estate*; *lātus*, *wide*, *fundus*, *estate*.

su-ove-taur-ilia, a *sacrifice of a sheep, a swine, and a bull*; *sūs*, *swine*, *ovis*, *sheep*, *taurus*, *bull*, where the primitive would be impossible in Latin, though such formations are common in Sanskrit.

IV.—DERIVATION OF VERBS.

165. Verbs may be classed as *Primitive* or *Derivative*.

¹ This suffix is the same as in § 162. *c.*, but not connected with a verb.

1. Primitive verbs are those inherited by the Latin from the parent speech.

2. Derivative verbs are those formed in the development of the Latin as a separate language. They are of two main classes:—

- a. DENOMINATIVE VERBS, formed from nouns or adjectives.
- b. Verbs apparently derived from the stems of other verbs (see § 167).

1. Denominative Verbs.

166. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun- and adjective-stem.

a. 1. Verbs of the first conjugation¹ are formed directly from ā-stems, regularly with a transitive meaning: as, *fuga*, flight; *fugō*, put to flight.

NOTE.—No doubt originally particular forms of stem formed particular conjugations of verbs, but from changes of stem and from various cross-analogies the relation between conjugations and stem-forms became entirely confused. Thus *poena* should make *†pūnāre*, but it really makes *pūnīre*, in accordance with an i-stem, as in *impūni-s*; *servus* makes *servāre* in one sense, *servīre* in another.

2. Many verbs of the First Conjugation are formed from o-stems, changing the o- into ā-. These are more commonly transitive. Thus,—

stimulus, a goad (stem *stimulo-*); *stimulō* (-āre), incite.
aequus, even (stem *aequo-*); *aequō* (-āre), make even.
hibernus, of the winter (stem *hiberno-*); *hibernō*, pass the winter.
albus, white (stem *albo-*); *albō* (-āre), whiten.
pius, pure (stem *pio-*); *piō* (-āre), expiate.

3. A few verbs, generally neuter, are formed by analogy from consonant- and u-stems, adding ā to the stem: as,—

vigil, awake, *vigilō* (-āre), watch.
exsul, an exile; *exsulō* (-āre), be in exile.
hiemps (stem *hiem-*), winter; *hiemō* (-āre), pass the winter.
aestus, tide, seething; *aestuō* (-āre), surge, boil.
levis (stem *levi-*), light; *levō* (-āre), lighten.

b. A few verbs of the Second Conjugation (generally intransitive) are recognizable as formed from noun-stems, but most are inherited, or the primitive noun-stem is lost: as,—

¹ A few verbs of the first conjugation are inherited. These are (1) formed directly from a root ending in a vowel, as *dāre* (DA), *stāre* (STA), *nāre* (NA); (2) formed with -yami (see p. 86), as *vocāre*; or (3) uncertain, as *amāre*.

albus, *white*; **albeō**, *be white* (cf. **albō**, -īre, *whiten*, under a. 2).
cānus (stem **cāno-**), *hoary*; **cāneō**, *be hoary*.
tumulus, *hill* (implying † **tumus**, *swelling*); **tumeō**, *swell*.
prō-vidus, *foreseeing*; **prō-vidēō**, *foresee*.
 But **moneō**, *remind*; cf. **meminī**, *remember*.
algeō, *be cold*; cf. **algidus**, *cold*.

NOTE.—The second conjugation has undoubtedly been formed partly through the agency of stems like those of the fifth declension in **ō-**, originally **ēs-**: as, **tsordēs**, -īs, *filth*; **sordeō**, *be dirty*, cf. Eng. *swart*; **tābēs**, -īs, *wasting*; **tābeō**, *waste away* (cf. also **pūbēs**, **pūbescō**); **rēs**, *thing*; **reor**, *reckon*. But the traces of the original formation of these verbs are almost lost from the language.

c. Some verbs in -uō, -uere are formed from noun-stems in **u-** where probably an **i** has been lost: as, —

status, *position*; **statuō**, *set up*.
metus, *fear*; **metuō**, *fear*.
indu (old form of **in**), *in, on*; **induō**, *put on*.
 So, by analogy, **exuō**, *doff*, from **ex**, *out of*.

NOTE.—Many verbs in **u** are inherited, being formed from roots in **u**: as, **fluō**, *flow*; **solvo**, *solve*. Some roots have a parasitic **u**: as, **loquor**, *loquitur*.

d. Many verbs of the Fourth Conjugation are formed from **i**-stems: as, —

mōlis (-īs), *mass*; **mōlior**, -īrī, *toil*.
finis, *end*; **finiō**, -īre, *bound*.
sitis, *thirst*; **sitiō**, -īre, *thirst*.
stabilis, *stable*; **stabiliō**, -īre, *establish*.

Some arise by confusion from other stems treated as if **i**-stems: as, —

bullā, *bubble*; **bulliō**, -īre, *boil*.
condus, *storekeeper*; **condiō**, -īre, *preserve*.
insānus, *mad*; **insāniō**, -īre, *rave*.
gestus, *gesture*; **gestiō**, -īre, *show wild longing*.
custōs, *guardian*; **custōdiō**, -īre, *guard*.

NOTE.—Some of this form are of doubtful origin: as, **ōrdior**, *begin*, cf. **ōrdō** and **exōrdium**. The formation is closely akin to that of verbs in -iō of the third conjugation (p. 100).

2. Verbs from Other Verbs.

167. The following classes of verbs regularly derived from other verbs have special meanings connected with their terminations.

NOTE.—These classes are all really denominative in their origin, but had become so associated with verbs that new derivatives were often formed directly from verbs without the intervention of a noun-stem.

a. INCEPTIVES or INCHOATIVES add *-scō* to the present stem of verbs. They denote the *beginning* of an action. Of some there is no simple verb in existence. Thus, —

caleō, be warm; *calē-scō*, grow warm.

labō, totter; *labā-scō*, begin to totter.

sciō, know; *sci-scō*, determine.

cupiō, desire; *con-cupi-scō*, conceive a desire for.

alō, feed; *ale-scō*, grow.

So *irā-scor*, get angry; cf. *irā-tus*.

iuvene-sco, grow young; cf. *iuvenis*, young man.

mīte-scō, grow mild; cf. *mītis*, mild.

vesperā-scit, it is getting late; cf. *vesper*, evening.

NOTE.—Inceptives properly have only the present stem, but many use the perfect and supine systems of simple verbs: as, *calēscō*, *calui*; *profiscor*, *profectus*.

b. INTENSIVES or ITERATIVES end in *-tō* or *-itō* (rarely *-sō*), and denote a *forcible* or *repeated* action: as, —

iaciō, throw; *iac-tō*, hurl.

dīcō, say; *diot-itō*, keep on saying.

quatiō, shake; *quas-sō*, shatter.

They are of the first conjugation, and are properly denominative, derived from the participle in *-tus* (stem *to-*).

NOTE.—But they were originally denominatives from a noun of agency in *-ta*, like *nauta*, sailor. Hence some are formed from a stem different from the supine: as, *agō*, *agitō* (not *†āctō*); so, *dictitō*, not *†dictātō*, from *dictō*.

c. Another form of Intensives — sometimes called Meditatives, or verbs of *practice* — ends in *-essō* (rarely *-issō*). These denote a certain *energy* or *eagerness* of action: as, —

capīō, take; *cap-essō*, lay hold on.

faciō, do; *fac-essō*, do (with energy).

petō, seek; *pet-issō*, seek (eagerly).

These are of the third conjugation, usually having the perfect and supine of the fourth: as, —

laccessō, *laccessēre*, *laccessēvi*, *laccessitum*, provoke.

d. DIMINUTIVES (derived from real or supposed diminutive nouns) end in *-iliō*, and denote a *feeble* or *petty* action: as, —

cavilla, raillery; cav-illor, jest
cantō, sing; cant-illō, chirp or warble.

e. Desideratives end in -*turiō* (-*suriō*), and express *longing or wishing*. They are of the fourth conjugation, and only three are in common use:—

emō, buy; emp-turiō, want to buy.
edō, eat; ē-suriō, be hungry.
pariō, bring forth; par-turiō, be in labor.

Others are used by the dramatists.

* NOTE.—Desideratives are derived from some noun of agency: as, *empturiō*, from *emptor*, *buyer*. *Visō, go to see*, is an inherited desiderative of a different formation.

3. Compound Words.

A Compound Word is one whose stem is made up of two or more simple stems.

Only noun-stems can be thus compounded. A preposition, however, often becomes attached to a verb.

168. New stems are formed by composition as follows:¹

a. The second part is simply added to the first: as,—

su-ove-taurilia (*sūs, ovis, taurus*), *the sacrifice of a hog, sheep, and bull* (cf. § 164. r).

septen-decim (*septem, decem*), *seventeen*.

b. The first part modifies the second as an adjective or adverb (*Determinative Compounds*): as,—

lāti-fundium (*lātus, fundus*), *a large landed estate*.

c. The first part has the force of a case, and the second a verbal force (*Objective Compounds*): as,—

¹ In these compounds only the second part receives inflection. This is most commonly the proper inflection of the last stem; but, as this kind of composition is in fact older than inflection, the compounded stem sometimes has an inflection of its own (as, *cornicen, -cenis; lucifer, -feri; iudex, -diels*), from stems not occurring in Latin. Especially do compound adjectives in Latin take the form of *i*-stems: as, *animus, exanimis; norma, abnormis* (see note, p. 30). In composition stems regularly have their uninflected form: as, *igni-spicium, divining by fire*. But *o-* and *ē-* stems weaken the final vowel of the stem to *i-*, as in *illipēs* (from *ēla*, st. *ēlā-*); and *i-* is so common a termination of compounded stems, that it is often added to stems which do not properly have it: as, *foederi-fragus* (for *foeder-fragus; foedus, i-fragus*), *eveni-frugis*.

agri-cola (ager, †obla akin to colō), *a farmer*.

armi-ger (arma, †ger akin to gerō), *armor-bearer*.

corni-oen (cornū, †oen akin to cānō), *horn-blower*.

carni-fex (carō, †fex akin to faciō), *executioner*.

d. Compounds of the above kinds, in which the last word is a noun, acquire the signification of adjectives, meaning *possessed of* the quality denoted (*Possessive Compounds*): as,—

ali-pēs (āla, pēs), *wing-footed*.

māgn-animus (māgnus, animus), *great-souled*.

con-cors (con-, cor), *harmonious*.

an-ceps (amb-, caput), *double* (having a head at both ends).

NOTE.—Many compounds of the above classes appear only in the form of some further derivative, the proper compound being impossible in Latin (cf. § 164. r).

169. In many apparent compounds, complete words—not stems—have grown together in speech.

These are not strictly compounds in the etymological sense. They are called *Syntactic Compounds*. Examples are:—

a. Compounds of faciō, factō, with an actual or formerly existing noun-stem confounded with a verbal stem in e-. These are CAUSATIVE in force: as, cōnsue-faciō, *habituate* (cf. cōnsue-scō, *become accustomed*); cale-faciō, cale-factō, *to heat* (cf. cale-scō, *grow warm*).

b. An adverb or noun combined with a verb: as, bene-dicō (bene dicō), *to bless*; sat-agō (satis agō), *to be busy enough*.

c. Many apparent compounds of stems: as, fidē-lubeō (fidēi lubeō), *to give surety*; mān-suētus (manūi suētus), *tame*; Iūppiter (†Iūa-pater); Mārci-por (Mārci puer), *slave of Marcus*.

d. A few phrases forced into the ordinary inflections of nouns: as,—

prō-cōnsul, *proconsul* (for prō cōnsule, *instead of a consul*).

trium-vir, *triumvir* (singular from trium virōrum).

septem-triō, *the Bear*, a constellation (supposed singular of septem triōnēs, *The Seven Oxen*).

170. Many syntactic compounds are formed by prefixing a Particle to some other part of speech:—

a. Prepositions are prefixed to Verbs or Adjectives. In these compounds the prepositions retain their original adverbial sense:¹ as,—

¹ The prepositions sometimes, however, have their ordinary force as prepositions, especially ad, in, circum, trans, and govern the case of a noun: as, transire flumen, *to cross a river* (see § 239. b. Rem.).

a, ab, AWAY: *au-ferre* (*ab-ferō*), *to take away*.

ad, TO, TOWARDS: *ad-ferre* (*ad-ferō*), *to bring*.

ante, BEFORE: *ante-ferre*, *to prefer*; *ante-cellere*, *to excel*.

circum, AROUND: *circum-mūnre*, *to fortify completely*.

com-, con- (cum), TOGETHER OR FORCIBLY: *cōn-ferre*, *to bring together*; *col-locāre*, *to set firm*.

dē, DOWN, UTTERLY: *dē-spiciere*, *despise*; *dēstruere*, *destroy*.

e, ex, OUT: *ex-ferre* (*eo-ferō*), *to carry forth, uplift*.

in (with verbs), IN, ON, AGAINST: *in-ferre*, *to bear against*.

inter, BETWEEN, TO PIECES: *inter-rumpere*, *to interrupt*.

ob, TOWARDS, TO MEET: *of-ferre*, *to offer*; *ob-venire*, *to meet*.

sub, UNDER: *sub-struere*, *to build beneath*.

super, UPON, OVER AND ABOVE: *super-fluere*, *to overflow*; *super-are*, *a survivor*.

NOTE.—In these compounds short *a* of the root is weakened to *i* before one consonant, to *e* before two: *as, faciō, cōficiō, cōnectus: iaciō, ēliciō, ēiectus*. But long *a* is retained: *as, perāctus*.

b. Verbs are also compounded with the following inseparable particles, which do not appear as prepositions in Latin:—

amb- (am-, an-), AROUND: *amb-ire*, *to go about* (cf. *ambi*, *about*).

dis-, di-, ASUNDER, APART: *dis-cedere*, *to depart* (cf. *dis*, *two*).

por-, FORWARD: *por-tendere*, *to hold forth, predict* (cf. *por*, *forth*).

red-, re-, BACK, AGAIN: *red-ire*, *to return*; *re-cludere*, *to open* (from *claud*, *shut*); *re-ficere*, *to repair* (make-again).

sēd-, sē-, APART: *sē-cernō*, *to separate* (cf. *sēd*, *but*).

c. An Adjective is sometimes modified by an adverbial prefix.

Of these, *per* (less commonly *prae*), *very*, *sub*, *somewhat*; *in-*, *not*, are regular, and may be prefixed to almost any adjective: *as, —*

per-magnus, *very large*.

prae-longus, *very long*.

sub-rūsticus, *rather clownish*.

in-finitus, *boundless*.

NOTE.—*Per* and *sub*, in these senses, are also prefixed to verbs: *as, per-terreo*, *terrify*; *sub-rideō*, *smile*. In *ignōscō*, *in-* appears to be the negative prefix.

d. Many Verbals are found compounded with a preposition, like the verbs to which they correspond. Thus,—

per-fuga, *deserter*; cf. *per-fugiō*.

trādūx, *wine-branch*; cf. *trāns-dūcō*.

PART SECOND.—USE OF WORDS (SYNTAX).

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

THE study of formal grammar arose at a late period in the history of language, and deals with language as fully developed. The terms of Syntax correspond accordingly to the logical habits of thought that have grown up at such a period, and have therefore a logical as well as a simply grammatical meaning. But Syntax as thus developed is not essential to language. A form of words—like *o puerum pulcrum!* *oh! beautiful boy*—may express a thought, and in some languages might even be a sentence; while it does not logically declare anything, and does not, strictly speaking, make what we call a sentence at all.

At a very early period of spoken language, Roots were no doubt significant in themselves, and constituted the whole of language,—just as to an infant the name of some familiar object will stand for all it can say about it. At a somewhat later stage, two simple roots put side by side¹ made a rudimentary form of proposition: as a child might say *fire bright; horse run*. With this begins the first form of logical distinction, that of Subject and Predicate; but as yet there is no distinction between noun and verb either in form or function. Roots were presently specialized, or modified in meaning, by the addition of other roots either pronominal or verbal, and Stems were formed; but the same stem could still be either nominal or verbal. In this period composition is the only form of syntax. Still later,—by combination chiefly of different pronominal elements with verb-stems and with noun-stems—Inflections were developed to express *person, tense, case*, and other grammatical relations,² and we have true parts of speech.

Not until language reached this last stage was there any limit to the association of words, or any rule prescribing the manner in which they should be combined. But gradually, by custom, particular forms came to be limited to special uses, or were produced to serve those uses; and rules were established for combining words in what we now call Sentences. These rules are in part general laws or forms of thought (Logic), resulting from our habits of mind (*General Grammar*); and in part are what may be called By-Laws, established by custom in a given language (*Particular Grammar*), and making what is called the Syntax of that language.

¹ In most languages there still remain traces of the *unorganised* forms of expression: as, for example, the nominative or accusative in Exclamations (§ 240. d), and the omission of the Copula (§ 206. c). These are sometimes wrongly regarded as cases of Ellipsis. Compare also the use of Interjections generally.

² Sometimes called *accidents*: hence the “*accidence*” of the language. Compare pp. 19, note 1; 78, note 1; 119–21; § 118. note.

Syntax: Introductory Note.

In the fully developed methods of expression to which we are almost exclusively accustomed, the unit of expression is the SENTENCE¹; that is, the completed statement, with its distinct Subject and Predicate. Originally every sentence is simple. But two simple sentences may be used together, without the subordination of either, to express a more complex form of thought than can be denoted by one alone. This is *parataxis* (arrangement side by side). In time two sentences, thus habitually used in connection, come to be regularly associated with each other, in certain relations, as parts of one logical idea, and the one is felt to *depend* upon the other. This is *syntaxis* (arrangement together). In this way, through various courses of development, which correspond to the growth of our habitual forms of thought, there are produced various forms of *complex sentences*. Thus *timeō nō id accidat* was originally two simple sentences: *I fear. Let that not happen!* and these, becoming attached, formed the complex sentence: *I fear (lest) that may happen*. The results of these processes constitute the subject-matter of Syntax as shown in the annexed Outline.

I. A SENTENCE may be either Simple or Compound: viz.,

- | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|
| 1. SIMPLE: | { Containing a single statement (Subject and Predicate) (§ 180). | | |
| 2. COMPOUND: | { <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses (§ 180. a).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (<i>complex</i>) (§ 180. b).</td> </tr> </table> | a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses (§ 180. a). | b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (<i>complex</i>) (§ 180. b). |
| a. Containing two or more Co-ordinate Clauses (§ 180. a). | | | |
| b. Modified by Subordinate Clauses (<i>complex</i>) (§ 180. b). | | | |

II. The Essential Parts of the Sentence are —

- | | | | | |
|---|--|---|---|---------------------------------------|
| a. The SUBJECT: consisting of | { <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>a. Noun or its equivalent (§ 174. 1).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Pronoun contained in verb-ending (§ 174. 2).</td> </tr> </table> | a. Noun or its equivalent (§ 174. 1). | b. Pronoun contained in verb-ending (§ 174. 2). | |
| a. Noun or its equivalent (§ 174. 1). | | | | |
| b. Pronoun contained in verb-ending (§ 174. 2). | | | | |
| 2. The PREDICATE: consisting of | { <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>a. Neuter (intransitive) Verb (§ 175. a).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Copula with Predicate Noun or Adjective (§ 172. note).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. Verb with Object (§§ 175. b, 177).</td> </tr> </table> | a. Neuter (intransitive) Verb (§ 175. a). | b. Copula with Predicate Noun or Adjective (§ 172. note). | c. Verb with Object (§§ 175. b, 177). |
| a. Neuter (intransitive) Verb (§ 175. a). | | | | |
| b. Copula with Predicate Noun or Adjective (§ 172. note). | | | | |
| c. Verb with Object (§§ 175. b, 177). | | | | |

III. The Subject and Predicate may be MODIFIED as follows: —

- | | | | | | | |
|--|---|--|-------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. The NOUN (<i>Subject or Object</i>) by | { <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. Noun in Oblique Case (§ 178. a, b).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>d. Preposition with its case (§ 260).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c).</td> </tr> </table> | a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184). | b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186). | c. Noun in Oblique Case (§ 178. a, b). | d. Preposition with its case (§ 260). | e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c). |
| a. Noun in Apposition (§ 184). | | | | | | |
| b. Adjective or Participle (§ 186). | | | | | | |
| c. Noun in Oblique Case (§ 178. a, b). | | | | | | |
| d. Preposition with its case (§ 260). | | | | | | |
| e. Relative Clause (§ 180. c). | | | | | | |
| 2. The VERB (<i>predicate</i>) by | { <table border="0" style="margin-left: 20px;"> <tr> <td>a. Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (§§ 179, 207).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>b. Predicate Adjective (§ 191).</td> </tr> <tr> <td>c. Subordinate Clause (§ 180. b).</td> </tr> </table> | a. Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (§§ 179, 207). | b. Predicate Adjective (§ 191). | c. Subordinate Clause (§ 180. b). | | |
| a. Adverb or Adverbial Phrase (§§ 179, 207). | | | | | | |
| b. Predicate Adjective (§ 191). | | | | | | |
| c. Subordinate Clause (§ 180. b). | | | | | | |

IV. Hence: {

a. Rules of AGREEMENT (<i>the Four Concords</i>) (§ 182).
b. Rules of GOVERNMENT (<i>Construction of Cases</i>) (§ 213 ff.).

¹ The meaning of Sentence is "Thought" (*sententia* from *sentire*). The grammatical form of the sentence is the form in which the thought is expressed.

CHAPTER I. — *The Sentence.*

1. Definitions.

171. A SENTENCE is a form of words which contains a Statement, a Question, an Exclamation, or a Command.

a. A sentence in the form of a Statement is called a DECLARATIVE SENTENCE: as, *equus currit, the horse runs.*

b. A sentence in the form of a Question is called an INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE: as, *equusne currit? does the horse run?*

c. A sentence in the form of an Exclamation is called an EXCLAMATORY SENTENCE: as, *quam celeriter currit equus! how fast the horse runs!*

d. A sentence in the form of a Command, an Exhortation, or an Entreaty is called an IMPERATIVE SENTENCE: as, *currat equus, let the horse run; I, curre per Alpēs, go, run across the Alps.*

172. Every sentence consists of a Subject and a Predicate.

The SUBJECT of a sentence is the person or thing spoken of.

The PREDICATE is that which is said of the Subject.

Thus in *equus currit, the horse runs*, *equus* is the subject, and *currit* the predicate.

NOTE.— Every complete sentence must contain a subject (§ 174) and a verb. The verb itself is usually the predicate, but when any form of *sum* is used simply to connect a noun or adjective as an attribute with the subject, such word is called the *predicate noun or adjective*, and *sum* is known as the *copula* (or connective) (§ 176. a). Thus in *Caesar cōsul erat, Caesar was consul*, *Caesar* is the subject, *cōsul* the predicate noun, and *erat* the copula.

But *sum* in the sense of *exist* makes a complete predicate alone. It is then called the *substantive verb*: as, *sunt viri fortēs, there are (exist) brave men.*

2. Subject and Predicate.

173. 1. The Subject of a Finite verb is in the NOMINATIVE CASE: as, —

equus currit, the horse runs. *rēgina sedet, the queen sits.*

2. The Subject of an Infinitive is in the ACCUSATIVE (see § 240. f).

NOTE.— A finite verb is a verb in the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative. These are called finite moods to distinguish them from the Infinitive.

174. 1. The Subject of a sentence is usually a Noun or some word or phrase used as a Noun: as, —

humānum est errāre, to err is human.

queritur num mors malum sit, the question is whether death is an evil.

venit, incertum est unde, he came, where from is uncertain.

2. But in Latin the subject may be implied in the termination of the verb (see § 206. a, b): as, —

sedē-mus, we sit.

curri-tis, you run.

inquit, he says.

175. Verbs are either Transitive or Intransitive.

a. An Intransitive (or Neuter) verb contains in itself an entire statement: as, —

cadō, I fall (am falling).

sol lūcet, the sun is shining.

sunt viri fortēs, there are brave men.

b. A Transitive (or Active) verb has or requires a Direct Object to complete its sense (see § 177): as, —

frātre[m] cecidit, he slew his brother.

NOTE 1.—Among transitive verbs **FACITATIVE VERBS** are sometimes distinguished as a separate class. These state an act which *produces* the thing expressed by the word which completes their sense. Thus *mēsam fēcit, he made a table* (which was not in existence before), is distinguished from *mēsam percussit, he struck a table* (which already existed).

NOTE 2.—A transitive verb may often be used *absolutely* without any object expressed: as, *arat, he is ploughing*, where the verb does not cease to be transitive because the object is left indefinite, as we see by adding, — *quid, what? agrum suum, his land.*

3. Predicate Noun.

176. An intransitive verb is often followed by a noun or adjective to describe or define the subject. This is called a Predicate Noun or Adjective: as, —

mortuus cecidit, he fell dead

Quintus sedet iūdex, Quintus sits as judge.

Caesar victor incedit, Caesar advances victorious (a victor).

a. The copula *sum* especially is used with a predicate noun or adjective (§ 172. note). So also verbs signifying *to become, to be made, to be named, to appear*, whence these are called **COPULATIVE** (*i.e.* *coupling*) verbs.

NOTE.—A noun in agreement with some part of the predicate is sometimes a Predicate Noun (see § 183. c).

δ. A: Predicate noun or adjective after the copula *esse* or a copulative verb is in the same case as the subject (see § 185. *a*).

Rōma est patria nostra, Rome is our country.

stellae lūcidae erant, the stars were bright (cf. stellae lūcēbant).

cōsul creātus est, he was elected consul.

mors finis esse vidētur, death seems to be the end.

dicit nōn omnēs bonōs esse beātōs, he says that not all good men are happy.

4. Object.

177. The person or thing immediately affected by the action of a verb is called the **DIRECT OBJECT**.

A person or thing indirectly affected is called the **INDIRECT OBJECT**.

Only transitive verbs can have a Direct Object; but an Indirect Object may be used with both transitive and intransitive verbs (§§ 225, 226). Thus:—

pater vocat filium (direct object), the father calls his son.

mihi (ind. obj.) agrum (dir. obj.) ostendit, he showed me a field.

* *mihi (ind. obj.) placet, it is pleasing to me.*

NOTE.—The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is not fixed, but most transitive verbs may be used intransitively, and many verbs usually intransitive may take a direct object and so become transitive (§ 237. *δ*).

a. When a transitive verb is changed from the Active to the Passive voice, the Direct Object becomes the Subject and is put in the nominative case: as, —

Active: pater filium vocat, the father calls [his] son.

Passive: filius ā patre vocātur, the son is called by his father.

Active: lūnam et stellās vidēmus, we see the moon and the stars.

Passive: lūna et stellae videntur, the moon and stars are seen (appear).

δ. With certain verbs, the Genitive, Dative, or Ablative is used where the English, from a difference in meaning, requires the Objective. Thus:—

hominem vidēō, I see the man (ACCUSATIVE).

homini serviō, I serve the man (DATIVE, see § 227).

*hominis misereor, I pity the man (GENITIVE, see § 221. *a*).*

homine amicō ūtor, I treat the man as a friend (ABLATIVE, see § 249).

c. Many verbs transitive in Latin are translated in English by an intransitive verb with a preposition: as, —

petit aprum, he aims at the boar.

laudem affectat, he strives after praise.

cūrāt valētūdinem, he takes care of his health.

NOTE.—One or more words, essential to the grammatical completeness of a sentence, but clear enough to the mind of a hearer, are often omitted. This omission is called **ELLIPSIS**, and the sentence is called an **ELLIPTICAL SENTENCE**: as, *adest, he is here*; *quis?* (sc. *adest*), *who?* miles (sc. *adest*), *the soldier*

5. Modification.

178. A Subject or a Predicate may be modified by a single word, or by a group of words (a Phrase or a Clause, see §§ 179, 180).

The modifying word or group of words may itself be modified in the same way.

a. A single modifying word may be an adjective, an adverb, an appositive (§ 184), or the oblique case of a noun. Thus in the sentence *vir fortis patienter fert*, *a brave man bears patiently*, the adjective *fortis*, *brave*, modifies the subject *vir*, *man*, and the adverb *patienter*, *patiently*, modifies the predicate *fert*, *bears*.

b. The modifying word is in some cases said to **LIMIT** the word to which it belongs. Thus in the sentence *puerī patrem videt*, *I see the boy's father*, the genitive *puerī* limits *patrem* (by excluding any other father)

179. A **PHRASE** is a group of words, without subject or predicate of its own, which may be used as an Adjective or an Adverb.

Thus in the sentence *vir fuit summā nobilitate*, *he was a man of the highest nobility*, the words *summā nobilitate*, *of the highest nobility*, are used for the adjective *nobilis*, *noble* (or *nobilissimus*, *very noble*), and are called an **ADJECTIVE PHRASE**. In the sentence *magnā celeritate venit*, *he came with great speed*, the words *magnā celeritate*, *with great speed*, are used for the adverb *celeriter*, *quickly* (or *celerrimē*, *very quickly*), and are called an **ADVERBIAL PHRASE**.

180. Sentences are either Simple or Compound.

A sentence containing a single statement is called a **SIMPLE SENTENCE**.

A sentence containing more than one statement is called a **COMPOUND SENTENCE**, and each single statement in it is called a **CLAUSE**.

a. If one statement is simply added to another, the clauses are said to be CO-ORDINATE. They are usually connected by a Co-ordinate Conjunction (§ 154. a); but this is sometimes omitted (§ 208. b). Thus: *divide et imperā, divide and conquer.* But, — *vēni, vidi, vici, I came, I saw, I conquered.*

b. If one statement modifies another in any way, the modifying clause is said to be SUBORDINATE, and the clause modified is called the MAIN CLAUSE.

This subordination is indicated by some connecting word, either a Subordinate Conjunction or a Relative (§ 154. b): as, —

ōderint dum metuunt, let them hate so long as they fear.

servum misit quem secum habebat, he sent the slave whom he had with him.

A sentence containing one or more subordinate clauses is sometimes called COMPLEX.

NOTE. — A subordinate clause may itself be modified by another subordinate clause.

c. A clause introduced by a Relative pronoun or adverb is called a RELATIVE CLAUSE.

A clause introduced by an adverb of time is called a TEMPORAL CLAUSE. Thus: —

dum tacent clamant, while they are silent they cry aloud.

homines aegri morbo gravi cum iactantur aestu febrique, si aquam gelidam biberint primō relevāri videntur, men suffering with a severe sickness, when they are tossing with the heat of fever, if they drink cold water, seem at first to be relieved.

d. A clause containing a Condition, introduced by *si, if*, or some equivalent, is called a CONDITIONAL CLAUSE. A sentence containing a conditional clause is called a CONDITIONAL SENTENCE.

Thus, *si aquam gelidam biberint, primō relevāri videntur* (cf. c above) is a Conditional Sentence, and *si... biberint* is a Conditional Clause.

e. A clause expressing the Purpose of an action is called a FINAL CLAUSE.

edō ut vivam, I eat to live (that I may live).

misit legātōs quī dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say (who should say).

A clause expressing the Result of an action is called a CONSECUTIVE CLAUSE.¹

tam longē aberam ut nōn vidērem, I was too far away to see (so far away that I didn't see).

¹ Observe that the classes defined in a-e are not mutually exclusive, but that a single clause may belong to several of them at once. Thus a relative clause is usually subordinate, and may be at the same time conditional; and subordinate clauses may be co-ordinate with each other.

f. Sentences or clauses are regularly connected by means of CONJUNCTIONS; but frequently in Latin — more rarely in English — independent sentences are connected by Relative Pronouns or Adverbs. In this case, the relative is often best translated in English by a conjunction with a demonstrative (cf. §§ 201. *e*, 336. *b*. Rem.): *as*, —

quō cum vēnisset, and *when he had come there* (whither when he had come).
quas cum ita sint, and *since these things are so*.

AGREEMENT.

181. A word is said to *agree* with another when it is required by usage to be in the same Gender, Number, Case, or Person.

182. The following are the general forms of Agreement, sometimes called the Four Concords: —

1. The agreement of the NOUN in Apposition or as Predicate (§§ 184, 185).

2. The agreement of the ADJECTIVE with its Noun (§ 186).

3. The agreement of the RELATIVE with its Antecedent (§ 198).

4. The agreement of the VERB with its Subject (§ 204).

a. A word sometimes takes the gender or number, not of the word with which it should regularly agree, but of some other word implied in that word. This use is called *SYNESIS*, or *cōstructiō ad sēsum* (construction according to sense).

I.—NOUNS.

183. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in CASE: *as*, —

Servius rēx, *Servius the king*.

ad urbem Athēnās, *to the city [of] Athens*.

Cicerō cōsul creatur, *Cicero is chosen consul*.

The descriptive noun may be either an Appositive (§ 184) or a Predicate noun (§ 185).

1. Apposition.

184. The descriptive noun, when in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an APPOSITIVE, and is said to be in APPPOSITION: *as*, —

externus timor, mǎximam concordiae vinculum, iungēbat animōs (Liv. 2. 39),
fear of the foreigner, the chief bond of harmony, united their hearts.

[Here the descriptive noun belongs to the subject.]

quattuor hic primum ōmen equōs vidi (Æn. iii. 537), *I saw here four horses, the first omen.* [Here both nouns are in the predicate.]

litterās Graecās senex didici (C. M. 26), *I learned Greek when an old man.*
 [Here *senex*, though in apposition, really states something further: viz., the time, condition, etc., of the act (*Predicate Apposition*).]

a. Words expressing *parts* may be in apposition with a word including the parts, or *vice versa*: as, —

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scipiōnēs, *Cneius and Publius, the Scipios.*

b. An appositive generally agrees in GENDER and NUMBER when it can: as, —

sequuntur nātūram, optimam ducem (I. v. 19), *they follow nature, the best guide.*

omnium doctrinārum inventricēs Athēnās (De Or. i. 13), *Athens, discoverer of all learning.*

NOTE. — But such agreement is often impossible: as, —

olim truncus eram ficulnus inūtile lignum, *I once was a fig-tree trunk, a useless log* (Hor. Sat. i. 8. 1).

c. A common noun in apposition with a Locative (§ 258. c) is put in the Ablative, with or without the preposition *in*: as, —

Antiochiāe, celebri quondam urbe (Arch. 4), *at Antioch, once a famous city.*
 Albæ cōstitērunt in urbe mūnitā (Phil. iv. 6), *they halted at Alba, a fortified town.*

d. A possessive pronoun or an adjective implying possession may take an appositive in the genitive case agreeing in gender, number, and case with an implied noun or pronoun (§ 197. e): as, —

in nostrō omnium flētū (Mil. 92), *amid the tears of us all.*

ex Anniānā Milōnis domō (Att. iv. 3) [= ex Anni Milōnis domō], *out of Annianus Milo's house.*

e. A genitive is sometimes used instead of an appositive (see § 214. f). So also a dative in certain constructions (see § 231. b).

2. Predicate Agreement.

The Predicate noun may agree (1) with the subject, being connected with it by the copula or a copulative verb (§ 176. a), or (2) with the direct object of a verb.

185. A descriptive noun used to form a predicate is called a PRÉDICATION NOMINATIVE (or other case, according to the construction).

a. The case of the predicate after the copula and copulative verbs is the same as that of the subject (§ 176. *b*): as, —

pācis semp̄r auctor fui (Ligar. 28), *I have always been an adviser of peace.*
quae pertinācia quibusdam, eadem aliīs cōstantia vidēri potest (Marcel.

31), *what may seem obstinacy to some, may seem to others consistency.*
ēius mortis sedētis ultōres (Milon. 79), *you sit as avengers of his death.*
habeātur vir ēgregius Paulus (Catil. iv. 21), *let Paulus be regarded as an extraordinary man.*

ego patrōnus exstiti (Rosc. Amer. 5), *I have come forward as an advocate.*

b. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural: as, —

cōsulēs creantur Caesar et Servilius (B. C. iii. 1), *Caesar and Servilius are elected consuls.*

For Predicate Accusative, see under that case, § 239. *a.*

II.—ADJECTIVES.

1. Rules of Agreement.

186. Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles agree with their nouns in *Gender, Number, and Case.*

vir fortis, a brave man.

illa mulier, that woman.

urbium magnārum, of great cities.

cum ducentis militibus, with 200 soldiers.

imperātor victus est, the general was beaten.

NOTE.—All rules for the agreement of adjectives apply also to adjective pronouns and to participles.

Adjectives are either *Attributive* or *Predicate*.

a. An *Attributive* adjective simply qualifies its noun without the intervention of a verb or participle, expressed or implied.

bonus imperātor, a good commander.

stellae lūcidae, bright stars.

b. All other adjectives are called *Predicate* adjectives.

1. A predicate adjective, like a predicate noun, may be connected with the subject by *esse* or a copulative verb expressed or implied (see § 176. *a*): as, —

stellae lūcidae erant, the stars were bright.

2. After verbs of *naming, calling, making, etc.*, an adjective may be used as a *predicative accusative* like a noun (see § 239. *a*).

3. A predicate adjective may be used in *apposition* like a noun (see *c*, below).

c. Predicate adjectives in apposition follow the rules of agreement of other adjectives (see § 186, above): as, —

Scipiōnem vivum vidī, *I saw Scipio in his lifetime* (lit., living).

d. With two or more nouns the adjective is regularly plural, but sometimes agrees with the nearest (especially when attributive). Thus,

Nisus et Euryalus primī (Æn. v. 294), *Nisus and Euryalus first*.

Caesaris omni et grātiā et opibus fruor (Fam. i. 9), *I enjoy all Caesar's favor and resources*.

NOTE. — An adjective referring to two nouns connected by *cūm*, is occasionally plural: as, —

Iuba cum Labienō captī (B. Afr. 52), *Juba and Labienus were taken*.

187. One adjective may belong in sense to two or more nouns of different genders.

a. In such cases, —

1. An attributive adjective agrees with the nearest: as, —

multae operae ac labōris, *of much trouble and toil*.

vita mōresque mei, *my life and character*.

si rēs, si vir, si tempus ūllum dignum fuit (Mil. 19), *if any thing, if any man, if any time was fit*.

2. A predicate adjective may agree with the nearest, if the nouns form one connected idea: as, —

factus est strepitus et admurmuratiō (Verr. i. 45), *a noise of assent was made* (noise and murmur).

NOTE. — This is only when the Copula agrees with the nearest subject (§ 205. d).

b. But generally, a predicate adjective will be masculine, if nouns of different genders mean *living beings*; neuter, if *things without life*: as,

uxor deinde ac liberi amplexī (Liv. ii. 40), *then his wife and children embraced him*.

labor (M.) voluptāsque (F.), societāte quādam inter se nātūrālī sunt iūcta (N.) (id. v. 4), *labor and delight are bound together by a certain natural alliance*.

NOTE. — If nouns of different genders include both living beings and things without life, a predicate adjective is sometimes masculine (or feminine), sometimes neuter, and sometimes agrees in gender with the nearest if that is plural: as, —

rēx rēgiaque clāssis unā profectī (Liv. xxi. 50), *the king and the royal fleet set out together*.

nātūrā inimica sunt libera cīvitas et rēx (id. xlv. 24), *by nature a free state and a king are hostile*.

lēgātōs sortesque orāculi expectandās (id. v. 15), *that the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be waited for*.

c. Two or more abstract nouns of the same gender may have a predicate adjective in the neuter plural (cf. § 189. c): *as*, —

stultitia et temeritas et iniustitia . . . sunt fugienda (Fin. iii. 39), *folly, rashness, and injustice are [things] to be shunned.*

d. A collective noun may take an adjective of a different gender and number agreeing with the gender and number of the individuals implied (*Synesis*, § 182. a): *as*, —

pars certare parati (Ain. v. 108), *a part ready to contend.*

duo milia relictæ (Liv. xxxvii. 39), *two thousand were left.*

coloniæ aliquot deductæ, Prisci Latini appellati (id. i. 3), *several colonies were planted (led out) [of men] called Old Latins.*

magna pars raptæ (id. i. 9), *a large part [of the women] were seized.*

omnis ætas currere obvii (id. xxvii. 51), *[people of] every age ran to meet them.*

e. A superlative in the predicate sometimes takes the gender of the substantive genitive by which it is limited: *as*, —

velocissimum animalium delphinus est (Plin.), *the dolphin is the swiftest [creature] of creatures.*

2. Adjectives used Substantively.

188. Adjectives are often used as Nouns (*substantively*), the masculine usually to denote *men* or *people in general* of that kind, the feminine *women*, and the neuter *things*: *as*, —

omnēs, *all men* (everybody).

māiorēs, *ancestors.*

Rōmāni, *Romans.*

liberta, *a freedwoman.*

sapiēs, *a sage* (philosopher).

boni, *the good* (good people).

omnia, *all things* (everything).

minōrēs, *descendants.*

barbari, *barbarians.*

Sabinæ, *the Sabine wife*

amicus, *a friend.*

bona, *goods, property.*

REMARK. — The plural of adjectives, pronouns, and participles is very common in this use. The singular is rare except in a few words which have become practically nouns. See below and § 189. a.

a. Certain adjectives have become practically nouns, and are often modified by other adjectives. Thus, —

tus vicinus proximus, *your next-door neighbor.*

propinqui ceteri, *his other relatives.*

meus æquālis, *a man of my own age.*

familiaris tuus, *an intimate friend of yours* (cf. § 218. d).

b. When any ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added. Thus, —

*boni, the good; omnia, everything (all things); but, —
potentia omnium rerum, power over everything. [omnium alone would
mean all men.]*

c. Many adjectives are used substantively either in the singular or the plural, with the added meaning of some noun which is understood from constant association: as, —

*Āfricus [ventus], the south-west wind.
vitulina [carō], veal (calf's flesh).
fera [bestia], a wild beast.
patria [terra], the fatherland.
Gallia [terra], Gaul (the land of the Galli).
hiberna [castra], winter quarters.
trirēmis [nāvis], a three-banked galley, trireme.
argentārius [faber], a silversmith.
rēgia [domus], the palace.
Latinae [feriae], the Latin festival.
Tusci [fundī], a Tuscan estate.*

NOTE. — These are *specific* in meaning, not *generic* like those in § 188, above.

d. A noun is sometimes used as an adjective, and may then be modified by an adverb: as, —

*victor exercitus, the victorious army.
servum pecus, a servile troop.
admodum puer, quite a boy (young).
magis vir, more of a man (more manly).*

e. A few adverbs appear to be used like adjectives. Such are: —

1. *obviam*: as, —

fit obviam, he goes to meet (becomes in the way of).

2. *contrā*, contradicting some previous adjective, and so in a manner repeating it: as, —

*alia probabilia, contrā alia dicimus (Off. ii. 7), we call some things
probable, others the opposite (not probable).*

3. *palam*: as, —

palam rēs est, the thing is all out.

4 So also, rarely, by a Greek construction —

*erī semper lēnitās (Ter. Andr. 175), my master's constant (always) gentle-
ness.*

189. Neuter adjectives are used substantively in the following special senses: —

a. The neuter *singular* may denote either a single object or an abstract quality: as, —

raptō vivere, to live by plunder.

in aridō, on dry ground.

honestum, an honorable act, or virtue as a quality

opus est mātūrātō, there is need of haste (cf. impersonal passives, § 146. d).

b. The neuter plural is used to signify objects in general having the quality denoted, and hence may stand for the abstract idea: as, —

honesta, honorable deeds (in general)

praeterita, the past (lit., by-gones).

omnēs fortia laudant, all men praise bravery (brave things).

c. A neuter adjective may be used as an appositive or predicate noun with a noun of different gender (cf. § 187. c): as, —

turpitudō pēius est quam dolor (Tusc. ii. 31), *disgrace is [a thing] worse than pain.*

lupus stabulis, the wolf is a grievous thing for the sheepfold.

varium et mutabile semper fēmina, woman is ever a changing and fickle thing.

malum mihi vidētur esse mors (Tuscul. i. 9), *death seems to me to be an evil* (a bad thing).

d. A neuter adjective is used in agreement with an Infinitive or a Substantive Clause: as, —

istūc ipsum nōn esse (Tuscul. i. 12), *that very "not to be."*

hūmānum est errāre, to err is human.

aliud est errāre Cæsarem nōlle, aliud nōlle miserērī (Lig. 16), *it is one thing to be unwilling that Caesar should err, another to be unwilling that he should pity.*

3. Possessives.

190. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used in Latin where the English has the possessive case, or a noun with a preposition (compare §§ 184. d, 197. a): as, —

pugna Cannēnsis, the fight at Cannæ.

C. Blossius Cūmānus, Caius Blossius of Cumæ.

aliēna domus, another man's house.

Cæsarina celeritās (Att. xvi. 10), *despatch like Caesar's* (Caesarian quickness).

a. Possessive and other derivative adjectives are often used substantively to denote some special class or relation (see § 197. d): as, —

nostri, our countrymen or men of our party.

Sullāni, the veterans of Sulla's army.

Pompēiāni, the partisans of Pompey

b. A possessive or derivative adjective sometimes appears to be used for the Objective Genitive, see § 217. a.

4. Adjectives with Adverbial Force.

191. An adjective, agreeing with the subject or object is often used to qualify the action of the verb, having the force of an adverb: as, —

primus vēnit, *he came first* (was the first to come).

nūllus dubitō, *I no way doubt.*

* laeti audiēre, *they were glad to hear.*

erat Rōmae frequēns (Ros. A. 16), *he was often at Rome.*

sērus in caelum redeās (Hor. Od. i. 2), *may'st thou return late to heaven.*

5. Comparatives and Superlatives.

192. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative: as, —

longior quam lātior aciēs erat (Liv. xxvii. 48), *the line was longer than it was broad* (or, *rather long than broad*).

a. Where magis is used, both adjectives are in the positive: as, —

clārī magis quam honestī (Jug. 8), *more renowned than honorable.*

b. A comparative and a positive, or even two positives, are sometimes connected by quam: as, —

clārīs māiōribus quam vetustis (Ann. iv. 61), *of a family more famous than old.*

vehementius quam cautē (Agri. 4), *with more fury than good heed.*

NOTE. — This use is rarer and less elegant than those before noticed.

193. Superlatives (and more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession — also medius, cēterus, reliquus — usually designate not *what object*, but *what part of it*, is meant: as, —

summus mōns, *the top of the hill.*

in ūltimā plateā, *at the end of the place.*

prior actiō, *the earlier part of an action.*

reliqui captivi, *the rest of the prisoners.*

in colle mediō (B. G. i. 24), *half way up the hill* (on the middle of the hill).

inter cēteram plānitē (Jug. 92), *in a region elsewhere level.*

NOTE. — A similar use is found in such expressions as sēra (mūtā) nocte, *late at night*. But medium vias, *the middle of the way*; multum diēi, *much of the day*, also occur.

III. — PRONOUNS.

NOTE.—A pronoun indicates some person or thing without either naming or describing it. Pronouns are derived from a distinct class of roots, which seem to have denoted only ideas of place and direction (§ 157. 2), and from which nouns or verbs can very rarely be formed. They may therefore stand for Nouns when the person or thing, being present to the senses or imagination, needs only to be pointed out. Some pronouns indicate the object in itself, without reference to its class, and have no distinction of gender. These are **PERSONAL PRONOUNS**. They stand syntactically for Nouns, and have the same construction as nouns. Others designate a particular object of a class, and take the gender of the individuals of that class. These are called **ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS**. They stand for Adjectives, and have the same construction as adjectives. Others are used in both ways; and, though called adjective pronouns, may also be treated as personal, taking, however, the gender of the object indicated.

1. Personal Pronouns.

194. The Personal Pronouns have, in general, the same constructions as nouns.

a. The personal pronouns are not expressed as subjects, except for distinction or emphasis (compare § 346. *d*): as, —

tē vocō, *I call you*; but

quis mē vocat? ego tē vocō, *who is calling me? I (emphatic) am calling you.*

b. The personal pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in -ūm being used *partitively* (§ 216), and that in -ī oftenest *objectively* (cf. § 213. 2): as, —

māior vestrūm, *the elder of you.*

habētis ducem memorem vestrī, oblitum sui (Cat. iv. 19), *you have a leader who thinks (is mindful) of you and forgets (is forgetful of) himself.*

pars nostrūm, *a part (i.e. some) of us.*

nostrī melior pars animus est (Sen.), *the better part of us (i.e. of man) is the soul.*

NOTE.—"One of themselves" is expressed by *ūnus ex suis* or *ipsais* (rarely *ex eis*), or *ūnus suorum*. The genitives *nostrūm*, *vestrūm* are occasionally used *objectively* (§ 217): as, *cupidus vestrūm* (Ver. iii. 224), *fond of you*, *custos vestrūm* (Cat. iii. 29), *the guardian of you (your guardian).*

c. The Latin has no personal pronouns of the third person except the reflexive (§8). The want is supplied by a Demonstrative or a Relative (§§ 180. *f*, 195, 201. *e*).

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

195. Demonstrative pronouns are used either adjectively or substantively.

As adjectives, they follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives (§§ 186, 187).

As substantives, they are equivalent to personal pronouns. This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of *is*. Thus:—

1. Personal:—

Caesar et exercitus eius, Caesar and his army (not *suus*). [*Eat, Caesar exercitum suum dimisit, Caesar disbanded his [own] army.*]

si obsidēs ab eis darentur, if hostages should be given by them (persons just spoken of).

his Caesar ita respondit, to them Caesar thus replied.

ille minimum propter adolescentiam poterat, he (emphatic) *had very little power, on account of his youth.*

hi sunt extrā provinciam trans Rhodanum primi, they (those just mentioned) *are the first [inhabitants] across the Rhone.*

2. Adjective:—

hōc proeliō factō, after this battle was fought (this battle having been, etc.).

eōdem proeliō, in the same battle.

eius rei peritī, men acquainted with that business.

[For special significations of the demonstratives, see § 102.]

a The demonstratives are sometimes used as pronouns of reference, to indicate with emphasis a noun or phrase just mentioned: as,—

nūllam virtūs aliam mercēdem dēsiderat praeter hanc laudis (Arch. 28), *virtue wants no other reward except that [just spoken of] of praise.*

b. But the demonstrative as a pronoun of reference is commonly omitted, or some other construction is preferred: as,—

memoriae artem quam obliuioni mālō, I prefer (like more) *the art of memory to* (than) *[that] of forgetfulness.*

Caesaris exercitus Pompēianōs ad Pharsālum vicit, the army of Caesar defeated that of Pompey (the Pompeians) *at Pharsalus.*

c. When a quality or act is ascribed with emphasis to a person or thing already named, *is* or *idem* (often with the concessive *quidem*) is used to indicate that person or thing: as,—

vincula, et ea sempiterna (Cat. iv. 7), *imprisonment, and that perpetual.*
legiōnem neque eam plēnissimam dēspiciēbant (B. G. iii. 2), *they despised the single legion, and that not a very full one.*

tuus dolor hūmanus is quidem sed, etc., your grief is human, to be sure, but, etc.

per unum servum et eum ex gladiatōriō lūdō (Att. l. 16. 5), *by means of a single slave, and that too one from the gladiatorial school.*

Tit. Gracchus rēgnum occupāre cōnāus est, vel rēgnāuit is quidem paucōs mēnēs (Lael. xii. 41), *Tiberius Gracchus tried to usurp royal power, or rather he actually reigned a few months.*

d. An adjective pronoun usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers (cf. § 199): as, —

hic labor hoc opus est, this is the toil, this the task [namely, *revocāre gradum*, which would regularly take a neuter pronoun].

rerum caput hoc erat, hic fons (Hor. Ep. i. 17. 45), *this was the head of things, this the source*.

eam sapientiam interpretantur quam adhuc mortālis nēmō est cōsecutus [for *id . . . quod*] (Iæd. 18), *they explain that [thing] to be wisdom which no man ever yet attained*.

e. *Idem, the same*, is often equivalent to an adverb or adverbial phrase (*also, too, yet, at the same time*): as, —

orātiō splendida et grandis et eadem in primis facēta (Bru. 273), *an oration, brilliant, able, and very witty too*.

cum [haec] dicat, negat idem in Deō esse grātiā (N. D. i. 121), *when he says this, he denies also that there is mercy with God* (he, the same man).

NOTE. — This is really the same use as in *c*, above, but in this case the pronoun cannot be represented by a pronoun in English.

f. The intensive *ipse, self*, is used with any of the other pronouns or a noun for the sake of emphasis: as, —

turpe mihi ipsi vidēbatur (Cic.), *even to me (to me myself) it seemed disgraceful*.

id ipsum, that very thing.

quod ipsum, which of itself alone.

in eum ipsum locum, to that very place.

REMARK. — The emphasis of *ipse* is often expressed in English by *just, very, mere*, etc. (see above examples).

g. *Ipse* is often used alone, substantively, as an emphatic pronoun of the third person: as, —

mihi satis, ipsi nōn satis (Cic.), *enough for me, not for themselves*.

omnēs boni quantum in ipsis fuit (id.), *all good men so far as was in their power* (in themselves).

beātōs illōs qui cum adesse ipsis nōn licēbat aderant tamen (id.), *happy they who, when it was not allowed them to attend in person, still were there*.

di capiti ipsius generique reservent (Æn. viii. 484), *may the gods hold in reserve [such a fate] to fall on his own and his son-in-law's head*.

h. *Ipse* is often used alone, substantively, to emphasize an omitted subject of the first or second person: as, —

vōbiscum ipse recordāmini (Cic.), *remember in your own minds (yourselves with yourselves)*.

i. **Ipse**, used substantively, sometimes refers to a principal personage, to distinguish him from subordinate persons: as, —

ipse dixit (cf. αὐτὸς ἔφα), *HE (the Master) said it.*

Nōmentānus erat super ipsum (Hor.), *Nomentanus was above [the host] himself [at table].*

h. **Ipse** is often, is rarely, used instead of a reflexive. See under Reflexives, § 196. *i.*

l. **Ipse** usually agrees with the subject, even when the real emphasis is in English on a reflexive in the predicate: as, —

mē ipse cōsolor, *I console myself.* [Not *mē ipsam*, as the English would lead us to expect].

m. For adverbs used instead of a demonstrative pronoun, see § 207. *a*

3. Reflexive Pronouns.

198. The Reflexive pronoun (**sē**),¹ and usually its corresponding possessive (**suum**), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause: as, —

virtūs sē nōvit, *virtue knows itself.*

prōmisit sē ventūrum [esse], *he promised that he would come.*

Brūtus amicum suum occidit, *Brutus killed his friend.*

Caesar statuit sibi Rhēnum esse trānseundum (B. G. iv. 16), *Cæsar decided that he must cross the Rhine* (the R. must be crossed by himself).

a. In a subordinate clause of a compound sentence there is a double use of reflexives.

1. The Reflexive may always be used to refer to the subject of its own clause (*Direct Reflexive*): as, —

ex quō iudicārī potest quantum habeat in sē bonī cōstantia (B. G. i. 40), *from which it can be determined how much good firmness possesses* (has in itself).

[Caesar] *nōluit eum locum vacāre, nē Germānī ē suis finibus trānsirent* (B. G. i. 28), *Cæsar did not wish this place to lie vacant, for fear the Germans would cross over from their territories.*

si qua significātiō virtūtis elūceat ad quam sē similis animus adplicet et adiungat (Lælius 48), *if any sign of virtue shine forth to which a similar disposition may attach itself.*

¹ This seems to have been originally the personal pronoun of the third person (Sk. *se* and Gr. *σέ*), but it came by use to be purely reflexive.

2. If the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the main clause, the reflexive is regularly used to refer to that subject (*Indirect Reflexive*): as, —

petiērunt ut sibi licēret (B. G. i. 30), *they begged that it might be allowed them* (the petitioners).

Iccius nūntium ad eum mittit, nisi subsidium sibi submittātur, etc. (B. G. ii.

6), *sends him a message that unless relief be furnished him* (Iccius), etc.

quem salutem suam crēditūrum sibi (Q. C. iii. 8), *who should trust his safety to him* (Darius)?

[Caesar] his uti conquererent et reducerent, si sibi pūrgāti esse vellent imperāvit (B. G. i. 28), *Caesar ordered them* (the Gauls) *to hunt up and bring back* [the fugitives] *if they* (the Gauls) *wished to be free from fault towards him* (Caesar).

hostium sē habitūrum numerō cōfirmat, si aut Ambiorigem aut eius lēgātōs finibus suis recepissent, [Caesar] *said that he should treat* [them] *as enemies if they received either Ambiorix or his envoys into their territories.*

decima legiō ei grātiās ēgit, quod dē sē optimum iūdicium fecisset (B. G. i. 41), *the tenth legion thanked him because* [they said] *he had expressed a high opinion of them.*

si obsidēs ab eis (the Helvetians) sibi (Caesar, who is the speaker) darentur, sē (Caesar) cum eis pācem esse factūrum (B. G. i. 14), [Caesar said] *that if hostages were given him by them he would make peace with them.*

Tarquinium dixisse ferunt sē intellēxisse quōs fidēs amicos habuisset, etc. (Laelius 53), *they say that Tarquin said that he understood, etc.*

NOTE — Sometimes *is* or *ipse* is used as an Indirect Reflexive either from careless writing or to avoid ambiguity (cf. i): as, —

qui sē ex his minus timidōs existimārī vellent, nōn sē hostem verērī, sed angustias itineris et magnitudinem silvārum quae intercēderent inter ipsōs (the persons referred to by sē above) atque Ariovistum . . . timēre dicēbant (B. G. i. 39), *those of them who wished to be thought less timid said they did not fear the enemy, but were afraid of the narrows and the vast extent of the forests which were between themselves and Ariovistus.*

audiatīs nūper dicere lēgātōs Tyndaritānōs Mercurium quī sacris anniver-sariis apud eōs colerētur Verris imperiō esse sublātum (Verr. iv. 84), *you have just heard the ambassadors from Tyndaris say that the statue of Mercury which was worshipped with annual rites among them was taken away, etc.* [Here Cicero wavers between apud eōs colēbātur, a remark of his own, and apud sē colerētur, the words of the lēgātōs. eōs does not strictly refer to the ambassadors, but to the people — the Tyndaritāni.]

3. If the subordinate clause does not express the words, etc., of the main subject, the reflexive is not regularly used, though it is occasionally found. Thus: —

sunt ita multi ut eōs carcer capere nōn possit (Catil. ii. 12), *they are so many that the prison cannot hold them.* [Here eōs could not be used.]
 ibi in proximis villis ita bipartitō fuērunt, ut Tiberis inter eōs et pōna interesset (Catil. iii. 5), *there they stationed themselves in the nearest farmhouses, in two divisions, in such a manner that the Tiber and the bridge were between them* (the divisions). [Here inter eōs might be used, but it would refer to a purpose of the soldiers.]

nōn fuit eō contentus quod eī praefer spem acciderat (Leg. Manil. 25), *he was not content with that which had happened to him beyond his hope.*

Compare: quī fit Maccēnās ut nēmō quam sibi sortem seu ratiō dederit seu fors obierit illā contentus vivat (Hor. Sat. l. i. 1), *how comes it, Maccenas, that nobody lives contented with that lot which chance has assigned him or chance has thrown in his way?* [Here sibi is used to put the thought into the mind of the discontented man.]

But,—Metellus in eis urbibus quae ad eō dēfēcērant praesidia impōnit (Sall. Jug. 61), *Metellus posted garrisons in those cities which had revolted to him.* [The author vacillates between the thought of Metellus and his own.]

b. The reflexive in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the subject of a suppressed main clause: as,—

Prætor, omnēs librōs quōs frāter suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. 1), *Prætor gave me all the books which* (as he said in the act of donation) *his brother had left him* (cf. a).

c. The reflexive may refer to any noun in its own clause, which is so emphasized as to become in a manner the *subject of discourse* (cf. the note): as,—

Sōcratē civēs suī interfēcērunt, *Socrates was put to death by his own fellow-citizens.*

quī poterat salūs sua cuiquam nōn probāri (Milon. 81), *how can any one fail to approve his own safety?* [In this and the preceding example the emphasis is preserved in English by the change to the passive.]

hunc sī secūti erunt suī comitēs (Cat. ii. 10), *this man, if his companions follow him.*

NOTE.—Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed: as,—

studeō sanāre sibi ipso (Catil. ii. 17), *I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit* (i.e. ut sanī sibi sint).

suō sibi gladiō (Plautus), *with his own sword.* [Here the clause is too indefinite to be supplied.]

d. The reflexive may follow a verbal noun or adjective: as,—
 sui laus, *self-praise.*

impotens sui (Q. C.), *without self-control.*

cum sui similibus servis (Phil. l. 5), *men with slaves like themselves.*

e. The reflexive may refer to the subject implied in an infinitive or verbal abstract used indefinitely: as, —

bellum est *sua* vitia nōsse (Cic.), *it is a fine thing to know one's own faults.*
cui prōposita sit cōservatiō *sui* (Fin. v. 37), *one whose aim is self-preservation.*

f. *Inter sē*, *among themselves*, is regularly used to express reciprocal action: as, —

cōhaerentia *inter sē*, *things consistent with each other.*

g. *Suus* is used for *one's own* as emphatically opposed to *that of others*, in any part of the sentence and with reference to any word in it: as, —

suis flammis dēlēte Fidēnās (Liv. iv. 33), *destroy Fidenæ with its own fires*
(the fires kindled by that city, figuratively). [Cf. Catil. i. 32.]

h. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns (*mei*, *tui*, etc.) are used (see p. 63): as, —

morti *meo* obtuli (Milon. 94), *I have exposed myself to death.*

hinc *tē* rēgīnae ad limina perfer (Æn. i. 389), *do you go (bear yourself) hence to the queen's threshold.*

quid est quod tantis nōs in labōribus exerceāmus (Archias 28), *what reason is there why we should exert ourselves in so great toils?*

singulis vōbīs novēnōs ex turmis manipulisque vestri similes eligit (Liv. xxi. 54), *for each of you pick out from the squadrons and maniples nine like yourselves.*

i. *Ipse* is often (is rarely) used instead of an *indirect reflexive*, to avoid ambiguity; and in later writers is sometimes found instead of the *direct reflexive* (cf. a. 2 and 3): as, —

cūr dē *sua* virtūte aut dē *ipsius* diligentia dēspērarent (B. G. i. 40), *why (he asked) should they despair of their own courage or his diligence?*

qui mortuō Dārēō *ipsa* tueretur repperisse (Q. C. x. 5), *we found one (said she) to protect us after the death of Darius.*

omnia aut *ipsos* aut hostēs populātōs (id. iii. 5), [they said that] *either they themselves or the enemy had laid all waste.*

4. Possessive Pronouns.

197. The Possessive pronouns are derivative adjectives, which take the gender, number, and case of the noun to which they belong, not that of the possessor: as, —

Caesar uxōrem *sua*m repudiāvit, *Caesar put away his wife.*

haec sunt *mea* ōrnamēta, *these are my jewels.* [*mea* is neut. pl., though the speaker is a woman.]

mei sunt ordinēs, mea dēscriptiō (Cat. M. 59), *mine are the rows, mine the arrangement.* [*mea* is fem., though the speaker is Cyrus.]

multa in nostrō collēgiō praeclāra (Cat. M. 64), [there are] *many fine things in our college.* [*nostrō* is neut. sing., though *men* are referred to.]

a. The possessive pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun.

1. Always instead of the Possessive Genitive: as, —

domus mea, my house. [Never *domus mei.*]

pater noster, our father. [Never *pater nostri.*]

patrimōnium tuum, your inheritance. [Not *tui.*]

NOTE 1. — In different languages the ideas associated with possessives are not always the same, and hence idiomatic uses differ. Thus *my eulogist* may, in Latin, be *laudātor nostri* (Att. i. 14, 6), or, like the English, *laudātor noster* (see Att. i. 16, 5), with a different conception of the relation.

NOTE 2. — The Possessive *cūlus*, -a, -um, is rare: as, *cūlum pecus? whose flock?* The genitive *cūlus* is generally used instead.

2. Rarely instead of the Objective Genitive (§ 217, cf. note 1, above). Thus, regularly: —

suū dēspiciēns, disdainful of himself.

nōn solum suū dēprecātorem, sed etiam accūsātorem meī, not only a mediator for himself, but an accuser of me (Att. xi. 8).

But occasionally, —

ea quae faciēbat, tuā sē fidūciā facere dicēbat (Ver. v. 176), *what he was doing, he said he did relying on you* (with your reliance).

neque negligentia tuā, neque id odiō fecit tuō (Ter. Phorm. 1016), *from neglect or hatred of you.*

b. The possessives have often the acquired meaning of *peculiar to, or favorable or propitious towards* the person or thing spoken of: as, —

[*petere*] *ut suā clēmētiā ac mānsuetūdine ūtātur, they asked (they said) that he would show his [wonted] clemency and humanity.*

tempore tuō pugnāsti, did you fight at a fit time? (lit., your own).

ignoranti quem portum petat nullus suus ventus est (Sen. Ep. 71), *to him who knows not what port he is bound to, no wind is fair (his own).*

NOTE. — This use is merely a natural development of the meaning of the possessive, and may often be rendered literally.

c. The possessives are regularly omitted (like other pronouns) when they are plainly implied in the context: as, —

amicum grātulātur, he greets his friend. [*amicum suum* would be distinctive, *his friend* (and not another's); *suum amicum, emphatic, his own friend.*]

d. Possessives are often used substantively (§ 190. a): as,—

nostrī, our countrymen, or men of our party.

suos continēbat (B. G. i. 15), *he held his men in check.*

flamma extrēma meōrum (Æn. ii. 431), *last flames of my countrymen.*

NOTE.—There is no reason to suppose an ellipsis here. The adjective becomes a noun like other adjectives (see § 188).

e. A possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 184. d): as,—

meā sōlius causā, for my sake only.

nostra omnium patria, the country of us all.

suum ipsius rēgnum, his own kingdom.

f. A possessive representing a genitive may serve as an antecedent to a relative (see § 199. b. note).

g. For the special reflexive use of the possessive *suus*, see § 196.

5. Relative Pronouns.

NOTE.—A Relative pronoun is properly an Adjective, in agreement with some word expressed or implied either in its own clause, or (often) in the antecedent (demonstrative) clause. The full construction would require the antecedent to be expressed in both clauses, with more commonly a corresponding *demonstrative* to which the relative would refer: as,—

Iter in ea loca facere coepit, quibus in locis esse Germānos audiēbat (B. G. iv. 7), *he began to march into those PLACES in which PLACES he heard the Germans were.*

But one of these nouns is commonly omitted. The antecedent is, in Latin, very frequently (rarely in English) found in the relative clause, but more commonly in the antecedent clause. Hence relatives serve two uses:—

1. as Nouns (or adjectives) in their own clause: as,—

ei qui Alesiac obsidēbantur, those who were besieged at Alesia.

2. as Connectives: as,—

T. Balventiō, qui superiōre annō primum pilum dūxerat, Titus Balventio, who the year before had been a centurion of the first rank.

In this latter use they are often equivalent merely to a demonstrative with a conjunction: as,—

quæ cum ita sint (= et cum ea ita sint), [and] since these things are so.

This connective force does not belong to the relative originally, but is developed from an interrogative or indefinite meaning specialized by use. The clauses were originally co-ordinate. Thus, *qui quiescens animō est, is est sapiēns* originally meant, *Who is undisturbed in soul? That [man] is a sage.*

A Relative pronoun indicates a relation between its own clause and some substantive. This substantive is called the Antecedent of the relative.

Thus, in the sentence —

eum nihil delectabat, quod fas esset, nothing pleased him which was right,
the relative *quod* connects its antecedent *nihil* with the predicate *fas*
esset, indicating a relation between the two.

188. A Relative agrees with its Antecedent in GENDER and NUMBER ; but its CASE depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands : as, —

puer qui venit abiit, the boy who came has gone away.
liber quem legis meus est, the book you are reading is mine.
via qua ambulat ducit ad urbem, the path he walks in leads to the city.

This rule applies to all relative words so far as they are variable in form : as, *qualis, quantus, quicumque*.

NOTE. — The relative may be the subject or object of its own clause, or a modifier of either : as, —

eōs enim civēs pūgna illa sustulerat quibus nō modo vivis sed etiam victoribus incolumis et florēns civitas esse posset (Phil. xiv. 23).

a. If a relative has two or more antecedents, it follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§§ 186, 187) : as, —

filium et filiam, quōs valdē dilēxit, unō tempore amisit, he lost a son and a daughter at the same time, whom he dearly loved:
grandēs natū matrēs et parvuli liberī, quōrum utrōrumque aetās misericordiam nostram requirit (Ver. v. 129), *aged matrons and little children, whose time of life in each case demands our compassion.*
otium atque divitiæ quæ prima mortālēs putant (Sall. Cat. 36), *idleness and wealth which men count the first* (objects of desire).
eæ frūgēs et fructūs quōs terra gignit (N. D. ii. 37), *those fruits and crops which the earth produces.*

189. A relative generally agrees in gender and number with an appositive or predicate noun in its own clause, rather than with an antecedent of different gender or number (cf. § 195. d) : as, —

mare etiam quam Neptūnum esse dicēbās (N. D. iii. 52), *the sea, too, which you said was Neptune.* [Not *quod*.]
Thēbæ ipse, quod Boeotiæ caput est (Liv. xlii. 44), *even Thebes, which is the chief city of Boeotia.* [Not *quæ*.]

NOTE. — This rule is occasionally violated : as, —

flumen quod appellatur Tamesis (B. G. v. 11), *a river which is called the Thames.*

a. A relative occasionally agrees with its antecedent in case (by *attraction*): *as*,—

sī aliquid agās eōrum quōrum cōsuēsti (Fam. v. 14), *if you should do something of what you are used to do.* [For *eōrum quae*.]

b. A relative may agree in gender and number with an *implied* antecedent: *as*,—

quārtum genus . . . quī aere vetere aliēnō vacillant (Cat. ii. 21), *a fourth class, that are staggering under old debts.*

ūnus ex eō numerō quī parātī erant (Jug. 35), *one of the number [of those] who were ready.*

coniūrāvēre paucī . . . dē quā [i.e. coniūrātiōne] dicam (Sall. Cat. 18), *a few have conspired . . . of which [conspiracy] I will speak.*

NOTE.—So regularly when the antecedent is implied in a possessive pronoun (cf. § 197. f): *as*,—

nostra quī adsumus salūs, *the safety of us who are present.* [Here *quī* agrees with the *nostrū* implied in *nostra*.]

200. The antecedent noun sometimes appears in both clauses; but usually only in the one that precedes. Sometimes it is wholly omitted. Thus—

a. The antecedent noun may be repeated in the relative clause: *as*,—

locī nātūra erat haec quem locum nostrī dēlēgerant (B. G. ii. 18), *the nature of the ground which our men had chosen was this.*

b. The antecedent noun may appear only in the relative clause: *as*,—

quās rēs in cōsulatū nostrō gessimus attigit hīc versibus (Arch. 28), *he has touched in verse the things which I did in my consulship.*

urbem quam statuō vestra est (Æn. i. 573), *yours is the city which I am founding.*

NOTE.—In this case a demonstrative (*is*, *ille*, or *hic*) usually stands in the antecedent clause: *as*,—

istos captīvōs duōs, heri quōs ēmi dē praedā . . . hīs inditō catēnās singulāriās (Plaut. Capt. 110), *those two prisoners that I bought yesterday,—put fetters on them.*

quae pars civitatīs calamitatem populō Rōmānō intulerat, ea princeps poenās persolvit (B. G. i. 12), *that part of the state which had brought disaster on the Roman people was the first to pay the penalty.*

In a sentence of this class the relative clause usually stands first in Latin (cf. § 202. c), as in the example.

c. The antecedent may be entirely omitted, especially if it is indefinite: as, —

qui decimae legiōnis aquilam ferēbat (B. G. iv. 25), [*the man*] *who bore the eagle of the tenth legion.*

qui cōgnōscerent misit (id. i. 21), *he sent [inen] to reconnoitre (who should, etc.).*

d. A predicate adjective (especially a superlative) agreeing with its antecedent in gender and number may stand in the relative clause: as, —

vāsa ea quae pulcherrima apud eum viderat (Verr. iv. 63), *those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house.* [Nearly equivalent to *the vessels of which he had seen some very beautiful ones.*]

e. The phrase *id quod* or *quae rēs* is used (instead of *quod* alone) to refer to a group of words or an idea: —

[obtectātum est] Gabiniō dicam ane Pompeiō? an utrique — *id quod est verius?* (Manil. 57), *an affront is offered — shall I say to Gabinius or to Pompey? or — which is truer — to both?*

multum sunt in venātiōnibus . . . quae rēs virēs alit (B. G. iv. 1), *they spend much time in hunting, which [practice] increases their strength.* [Cf. B. G. ii. 5.]

NOTE. — But *quod* alone often occurs: as, —

Cassius noster, quod mihi māgnae voluptātī fuit, hostem reliēcerat (Fam. ii. 10), *our friend Cassius — which was a great satisfaction to me — had driven back the enemy.*

201. In the use of relatives, the following points are to be observed: —

a. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English. Thus, —

liber quem mihi dedisti, *the book you gave me.*

is sum qui semper fui, *I am the same man I always was.*

eo in locō est dē quō tibi locūtus sum, *he is in the place I told you of.*

b. A relative clause in Latin often takes the place of some other construction in English; particularly of a participle, an appositive, or a noun of agency: as, —

lōgēs quae nunc sunt, *the existing laws* (the laws which now exist).

Caesar qui Galliam vicit, *Caesar the conqueror of Gaul* (who conquered Gaul).

fiesta glōria quae est fructus virtutis, *true glory* [which is] *the fruit of virtue*

qui legit, *a reader* (one who reads).

ille qui petit, *the plaintiff* (he who sues).

c. In formal or emphatic discourse, the relative clause usually comes first, often containing the antecedent noun (cf. § 200. b): as, —

quae mala cum multis patimur, ea nobis leviora videntur, the evils we suffer [in common] with many, seem to us lighter.

NOTE. — In colloquial language, the relative clause in such cases often contains a demonstrative pronoun which properly belongs in the antecedent clause: as, —

ille qui cōsultē . . . cavet, diūtine ūtī ei bene licet partum bene (Plaut. Rud. 1240), *he who is on his guard, he may enjoy, etc.*

d. The antecedent noun, when in apposition with the main clause, or with some word of it, is put in the relative clause: as, —

firmi amici, cuius generis est magna pēnūria, steadfast friends, a class of which there is great lack (of which class).

e. A relative may stand (even with another relative or an interrogative) at the beginning of a sentence or clause, where in English a demonstrative must be used (§ 180. f): as, —

quae qui audiēbant, and those who heard this (which things).

quae cum ita sint, and since these things are so.

quōrum quod simile factum (Cat. iv. 13), *what deed of theirs like this?*

f. 1. A relative adverb is regularly used in referring to an antecedent in the Locative case: as, —

mortuus Cūmis quō sē contulerat (Liv. ii. 21), *having died at Cuma, whither he had retired.* [Here in *quam urbem* might be used, but not in *quās*.]

2. So, often, to express any relation of place instead of the formal relative pronoun (cf. *whence, whereto, wherewith*): as, —

locus quō aditus nōn erat, a place to which (whither) *there was no access.*

rēgna, unde genus dūcis, the kingdom from which you derive your race.

unde petitur, the defendant (he wherefrom something is demanded, cf. § 207. a).

g. The relatives *qui, quālis, quantus, quot*, etc., are often rendered simply by *as*¹ in English (§ 106. b): as, —

idem quod semper, the same as always

tālis dux quālem Hannibalem nōvimus, such a chief as we know Hannibal [to have been].

tanta dimicatio quanta numquam fuit, such a fight as never was before.

tot mala quot sidera, as many troubles as stars in the sky.

¹ The English *as* in this use is strictly a relative, though invariable in form.

* 4. The general construction of relatives is found in clauses introduced by relative or temporal adverbs: *as, ubi, quō, unde, cum, quārē*.

NOTE.—For the use of the Relative in idiomatic clauses of Characteristic and Result (*est qui, dignus qui, quam qui, etc.*), see § 320.

For the use of Interrogatives, see § 210.

6. Indefinite Pronouns.

202. The Indefinite pronouns are used to indicate that *some* person or thing is meant, without designating *what one*.

NOTE.—For the meanings of the compounds of *quis* and *quis*, see § 105.

a. Of the particular indefinites meaning *some* or *any* (*quis, quispian, nesciō quis, aliquis, quidam*), the simple *quis* is least definite, *quidam* most definite: *as*,—

dixerit quis (quispian), some one may say.

aliqui philosophi ita putant, some philosophers think so. [*quidam* would mean *certain particular persons* defined to the speaker's mind, though not named.]

habitāt hic quaedam mulierēs pauperulae, some poor women live here [*i.e.* *some women he knows of; some women or other would be aliquae or nesciō quae*].

b. In a *particular* negative *aliquis* (*aliqui*) is regularly used, where in a *universal* negative *quisquam* (subst.) or *nullus* (adj.) would be required: *as*,—

iūstitia nunquam nocet cuiquam qui eam habet (Cic.), justice never does harm to anybody who possesses it. [*alicui* would mean *to somebody who possesses it*.]

sine aliquō metū, [you cannot do this] without some fear.

sine ullō metū, [you may do this] without any fear.

cum aliquid nōn habeās (Tusc. i. 88), when there is something you have not.

NOTE.—These pronouns are used in like manner in conditional and other sentences (§ 105. 4): *as*,—

si quisquam, ille sapiēs fuit (Lael. 9), if any man was (ever) a sage, he was.
dum praesidia ūlla fuērunt (Rosc. A. 126), while there were any armed forces (till they ceased to be).

si quid in tē peccāvī (Att. iii. 15, 4), if I have done wrong towards you [in any particular case (see a, above)].

c. Of the general indefinites, *quivis* and *quilibet* (*any you will*), *utervis* (*either you will*, of two), are used chiefly in affirmative clauses, *quisquam* and *nullus* (*any at all*) in clauses where a negative is either expressed or implied: *as*,—

cuius potest accidere quod cuiquam potest, *what can happen to any [one] man can happen to any man [whatever].*

nōn cuius homini contingit adire Corinthum, *it is not every man's luck to go to Corinth.* [nōn cuiquam would mean *not any man's*.]

minus habeo vinum quam vestrum utervis, *I have less strength than either of you.* [For the form *utervis*, see § 83.]

quidlibet modo aliquid (Cic.), *anything you will, provided it be something.*

cūr cuiquam misi prius, *why did I send to anybody before [you]? **

si quisquam est timidus, is ego sum, *if any man is timorous, I am he.*

cum haud cuiquam in dubiō esset (Liv. ii. 3), *when it was not a matter of doubt to any one.*

si tempus est illū iure hominis necandi (Milon. 9), *if there is any occasion whatever, etc.*

NOTE.—The use of these indefinites is very various, and must be learned from the *Lexicon* and from practice. The choice among them often depends merely on the point of view of the speaker, so that they are often practically interchangeable. The differences are (with few exceptions) those of logic, not of syntax.

d. The distributives *quisque* (*every*), *uterque* (*each*), and *finus quisque* (*every single one*), are used in general assertions. They are equivalent to a plural, and sometimes have a plural verb (cf. § 205. c 2): *as*,—

bonus liber melior est quisque quō maior, *the larger a good book is, the better* (each good book is better [in the same measure] as it is larger).

ambo exercitūs suās quisque abeunt domōs, *both armies go away, every man to his home.*

uterque utrique erat exercitus in cōspectū, *each army was in sight of the other* (each to each).

pōnite ante oculōs ūnumquemque rēgum, *set before your eyes each of the kings.*

e. *Quisque* is regularly placed in a dependent clause, if there is one: quō quisque est sollertior, hōc docet irācundius (Rosc. Com. 31), *the keener-witted a man is, the more impatiently he teaches* (as each is so, etc.).

NOTE.—*Quisque* is generally post-positive. Thus, suum cuique, *to every man his own*.

f. *Nēmō*, *no one*, is used:—

1. As a substantive: *as*,—

nēmō fit repenti turpissimus, *no one suddenly becomes absolutely base.*

2. As an adjective pronoun: *as*,—

vir nēmō bonus (Leg. ii. 41), *no good man.*

NOTE.—Even when used as a substantive, *nēmō* may take a noun in apposition: *as*,—

nēmō scriptor, *nobody [who is] a writer.*

7. Alius and Alter.

208. The expressions *alter . . . alter, the one . . . the other, alius . . . alius, one . . . another*, may be used in pairs to denote either *division* of a group or *reciprocity* of action: as, —

alii gladiis adoriuntur, alii frāgmentis saeptōrum (Sest. 79), *some make an attack with swords, others with fragments of the railings.*

arma ab aliis posita ab aliis ērepta sunt (Marcel. 31), *arms were laid down by some and were snatched from others.*

duobus Rosciis Amerinis quōrum alterum sedēre in accusatōrum subselliis vidēo, alterum tria hūiusce praeiia possidēre audiō (Rosc. Amer. 17), *two Roscii of Ameria, one of whom I see sitting on the benches of the prosecution; the other, I hear, is in possession, etc.*

alteri dimicant, alteri victōrem timent (Fam. vi. 3), *one party fights, the other fears the victor.*

hi frātres alter alterum amant, *these brothers love one another.*

alius alium percontāmur, *we ask each other.*

a. Alius means simply *other, another* (of an indefinite number); *alter, the other* (of two), often the *second* in a series; *ceteri* and *reliqui*, *all the rest, the others*; *alteruter*, *one of the two*. Thus, —

quid aliud agis, *what else are you doing* (what other thing)?

cum etiam hi quibus ignōvisti, nōlunt tē esse in aliōs misericordem (Lig. 15), *when even those whom you have pardoned are unwilling that you should be merciful to others.*

unī epistolae respondi, veniō ad alteram (Fam. ii. 17, 6), *one letter I have answered, I come to the other.*

unus atque item alter, one and then [likewise] *another*. [Of an indefinite number, but strictly referring only to the second.]

alterum genus (Cat. ii. 19), *the second class.*

icēissem ipse mē potius in profundum ut ceterōs cōservārem (Sestius, 45), *I should have rather thrown myself into the deep to save the rest*
hōrum utrō ūti nōlumus, alterō est ūtendum (Sestius, 92), *whichever of the two we do not wish to have, we must take the other.*

Servilius cōsul, reliquique magistrātus (B. C. iii. 21), *Servilius the consul and the rest of the magistrates.*

cum sit necesse alterutrum vincere (Fam. vi. 3), *when it must be that one of the two should prevail.*

b. Alius and *alter* are often used to express *one as well as another (the other)* of the objects referred to: as. —

alter cōsulum, *one of the* [two] *consuls.*

aliud est maledicere, aliud accusāre (Cic.), *it is one thing to slander, another to accuse.*

c. **Alius** repeated in another case, or with an adverb from the same stem, expresses shortly a double statement: as, —

alius aliud petit, one man seeks one thing, one another (another seeks another thing).

alius aliā viā civitatem auxērunt (Liv. i. 21), they enlarged the State, each in his own way.

iussit aliōs alibi fodere (Liv. xlv. 33), he ordered different persons to dig in various places.

NOTE. — **Alter** is often used, especially with negatives, in reference to an indefinite number where *one* is opposed to *all the rest* taken singly: as, —

quis alterum incusat probri eum ipsum se intueri oportet (Pl. Truc. 159), he who accuses his neighbor of wrong ought to look at himself (the other, there being at the moment only two concerned).

nonne sit te ditior alter (Hor. Sat. i. 1. 40), so long as another is not richer than you.

non ut magis alter, amicus (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 33), a friend such that no other is more so.

IV.—VERBS.

1. Verb and Subject.

204. A Finite verb agrees with its Subject in Number and Person: as, —

ego statuō, I resolve.

senatus decrevit, the senate ordered.

silent leges inter arma, the laws are dumb in time of war.

NOTE. — In verb-forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender and number (§ 186): as, —

oratio est habita, the plea was delivered.

bellum exortum est, a war arose.

a. A verb having a relative as its subject takes the person of the expressed or implied antecedent: as, —

adsum qui feci (Aen. ix. 427), here am I who did it.

b. The verb sometimes agrees in number, a participle in the verb-form in number and gender, with an appositive or predicate noun: as, —

amantium irae amoris reintegratio est (Ter. Andr. 555), the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love.

non omnis error stultitia est dicenda (Div. ii. 90), not every error should be called folly.

Corinthi hunc Graeciae extinctum est, Corinth, the light of Greece, is put out.

2. Double Subject.

205. Two or more singular subjects take a verb in the plural: as, —

pater et avus mortuū sunt, his father and grandfather are dead.

NOTE. — So rarely (by a construction according to the sense, § 182) when to the subject is attached an ablative with *cum*: as, —

dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur (Liv. xxi. 60), the general and several chiefs are taken.

When subjects are of different persons, the verb is in the first person rather than the second, and in the second rather than the third: as, —

sī tū et Tullia valētis ego et Cicerō valēmus (Fam. xiv. 5), if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well. [Notice that the first person is also first in order, not last, as by courtesy in English.]

NOTE. — In case of different genders a participle in a verb-form follows the rule for predicate adjectives; see § 187. *b, c.*

b. If the subjects are connected by disjunctives, or if they are considered as a single whole, the verb is usually singular: as, —

quem neque fidēs neque iusiurandum neque illum misericordia repressit (Ter. Ad. 306), not faith, nor oath, nor mercy, checked him.

Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit (Fam. v. 8), the Roman Senate and people understand. But, — *neque Caesar neque ego lapsi essemus (Fam. xi. 20), neither C. nor I should have been considered.*

c. A collective noun commonly takes a verb in the singular: as, —

Senātus haec intelligit (Catil. i. 2), the Senate is aware of this.

ad hiberna exercitus redit (Liv. xxi. 22), the army returns to winter quarters.

i. But the plural is often found with collective nouns when individuals are thought of: as, —

pars praedās agēbant (Jug. 32), a part brought in booty.

cum tanta multitudō lapidēs cōiicerent (B. G. ii. 6), when such a crowd was throwing stones.

NOTE. — The point of view may change in the course of a sentence: as, —

equitātum omnem . . . quem habēbat praemittit, quī videant (B. G. i. 15), he sent ahead all the cavalry he had, to see (who should see).

2. Quisque has very often a plural verb, but may be considered as in apposition with a plural subject implied (cf. § 202. *d*): as, —

sibi quisque habeant quod suum est (Plaut. Curc.), let every one keep his own (let them keep every man his own).

d. When a verb belongs to two or more subjects *separately*, it may agree with one and be understood with the others: as, —

intercōdit M. Antōnius et Cassius tribūnī plēbis (B. C. i. 2), *Antony and Cassius, tribunes of the people, interpose.*

3. Incomplete Sentences.

206. The subject of the verb is sometimes omitted. Thus:

a. A Personal pronoun, as subject, is usually omitted unless emphatic. Thus, —

loquor, I speak. But, *ego loquor, it is I that speak.*

b. An *indefinite* subject is often omitted.

This is usually a plural, as in *dicunt, ferunt, perhibent* (*they say*); but sometimes singular, as in *inquit* (Tusc. i. 93), *one says* (referring to a class of reasoners just spoken of).

c. The verb is often omitted. Thus, —

1. *Dicō, faciō, agō* and other verbs in familiar phrases: as, —

quōrūm haec [spectant], *what does this aim at?*

ex ungue leōnem [cōgnōscēs], *you will know a lion by his claw.*

quid multa, *what need of many words?* (why should I say much?)

quid? quod, *what of this, that, etc.*? (what shall I say of this, that, etc.?)

[A form of transition.]

Aeolus haec contrā (Æn. i. 76), *Æolus thus* [spoke] *in reply.*

tum Cotta [inquit], *then said Cotta.*

dī meliōra [duint], *Heaven forefend* (may the gods grant better things)!

unde [venis] *et quō* [tendis], *where are you from and where bound?*

2. The copula *sum*, very commonly in the indicative and infinitive, rarely (except by late authors) in the subjunctive: as, —

tū contūnx (Æn. iv. 113), *you* [are] *his wife.*

omnia praeclāra rara (Lael. 79), *all the best things are rare.*

potest incidere saepe contentiō et comparatiō dē duobus honestis utrum honestius (Of. i. 152), *a comparison of two honorable actions, as to which is the more honorable.* [Here, if any copula were expressed, it would be *sit*, but the direct question would be complete without any.]

accipe quae peragenda prius (Æn. vi. 136), *hear what is first to be accomplished.* [Direct: *quae peragenda prius?*]

Cf., for omission of a Subjunctive, — *cum ille ferōciter ad haec* [diceret] (Liv. i. 48), *upon his replying with insolence to this, that, etc.*

V. — PARTICLES.

1. Adverbs.

207. Adverbs are used to modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs.

NOTE 1. — For the derivation and classification of adverbs, see §§ 148, 149.

NOTE 2. — The proper functions of Adverbs, as petrified case-forms, is to modify Verbs: as, *celeriter ire*, to go with speed. It is from this use that they derive their name (*adverbium*, from *ad*, to, and *verbum*, verb; see § 163. f). They also modify adjectives, showing in what manner or degree the quality described is manifested: as, *splendidè mendāx*, gloriously false. More rarely they modify other adverbs: as, *nimis graviter*, too severely.

NOTE 3. — Many adverbs, especially relative adverbs, serve as connectives, and are hardly to be distinguished from conjunctions (see § 25. h. note).

a. A Demonstrative or Relative adverb is often equivalent to the corresponding Pronoun with a preposition (see § 201. f): as, —

eō (= *in ea*) *impōnit vāsa* (Jug. 75), upon them (thither, thereon, on the beasts) he puts the camp-utensils.

eō militēs impōnere (B. G. i. 42), on them (thereon) he puts the soldiers.

apud eōs quō (= *ad quōs*) *sē contulit* (Verr. iv. 38), among those to whom (whither) he resorted.

quī eum necāset unde ipse nātus esset (Rosc. Am. 71), one who should have killed his own father (him whence he had his birth).

ō miserās condiciōnēs administrandārum prōvinciārum ubi [= *in quibus*] *sevēritās periculōsa est* (Flacc. 87), oh! wretched terms of managing the provinces, where strictness is dangerous.

b. The adverbs *propius*, near; *proximè*, next (like the adjectives *propior*, *proximus*); *prīdiē*, the day before; *postrīdiē*, the day after, are sometimes followed by the accusative (see § 261. a).

The adverbs *palam*, openly; *procul*, afar; *simul*, at the same time. are sometimes followed by the ablative (see § 261. b).

NOTE. — *Prīdiē* and *postrīdiē* are often used with the genitive (§ 223. e. n. a). *Clam*, without the knowledge of, may take the accusative, the ablative, or the genitive (§ 261. c).

c. Many perfect participles used as nouns regularly retain the adverb which modified them as participles: as, —

praeclārē factum, a glorious deed (a thing gloriously done).

d. Very rarely adverbs are used with nouns which contain a verbal idea (cf. § 188. d'): as, —

populus latē rēx (Ain. i. 21), a people ruling far and wide.

hinc abiitō (Plaut.), a going away from here.

quid cōgitem dē obviām itīōne (Att. xiii. 50), what I think about going to meet [him]. [Perhaps felt as a compound.]

e. For adverbs used as adjectives, see § 188. e.

NOTE. — In some cases one can hardly say whether the adverb is treated as an adjective modifying the noun (as in § 188. e), or the noun modified is treated as an adjective (as in § 188. d').

2. Conjunctions.

NOTE.—For the classification of conjunctions, see §§ 154, 155.

208. Copulative and Disjunctive Conjunctions connect similar constructions, and are regularly followed by the same case or mood that precedes them: as, —

scriptum senatui et populo (Catil. iii. 10), *written to the senate and people.*
ut eas [partis] sanares et confirmares (Milon. 68), *that you might cure and strengthen those parts.*

neque mea prudentia neque humanis consiliis fretus (Catil. ii. 29), *relying neither on my own foresight nor on human wisdom.*

a. Conjunctions of Comparison (as *ut*, *quam*, *tanquam*, *quasi*) also commonly connect similar constructions: as, —

his igitur quam physicis potius credendum existimas (Div. ii. 37), *do you think these are more to be trusted than the natural philosophers?*

hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quam Phormionem (Ter.), *a shrewder man I never saw than Phormio* (cf. § 247. a).

ut non omne vinum sicut non omnis natura vetustate coalescit (Cato Major, 65), *as every wine does not sour with age, so [does] not every nature.*

Cf. *perge ut instituisti* (Rep. ii. 22), *go on as you have begun.*

in me quasi in tyrannum (Philip. xiv. 15), *against me as against a tyrant.*

b. Two or more co-ordinate words, phrases, or sentences are often put together without the use of conjunctions (*Asyndeton*, § 346. c): as, —

omnes di, homines, *all gods and men.*

summi, medii, infimi, *the highest, the middle class, and the lowest.*

liberi, servi, *freemen and slaves.*

1. Where there are more than two co-ordinate words, etc., a conjunction, if used at all, must be used with all (or all except the first): as, —

aut aere alieno aut magnitudine tributorum aut iniuria potentiorum (B. G. vi. 13), *by debt, excessive taxation, or oppression on the part of the powerful.*

summa fide et constantia et iustitia, *with perfect good faith, [and] consistency, and justice.* [Not *fide constantia et iustitia*, as in English.]

2. But words are often so divided into groups that the members of the groups omit the conjunction (or express it), while the groups themselves express the conjunction (or omit it): as, —

propudium illud et portentum, I. Antonius *insigne odium omnium hominum* (Phil. xiv. 8), *that wretch and monster, Lucius Antonius, the abomination of all men.*

utrumque egit graviter, auctoritate et offensione animi non acerba (Lael. 77), *he acted in both cases with dignity, without loss of authority, and with no bitterness of feeling.*

3. The enclitic *-que* is sometimes used with the last member of a series, even when there is no grouping apparent: as, —

vōce vultū mōtūque (Brut. 110), *by voice, expression, and gesture.*

cūram cōsiliū vigilantiamque (Phil. vii. 20), *care, wisdom, and vigilance.*

multō sūdōre labōre vigiliisque (Caecil. 72), *with much fatigue, toil and waking.*

quōrum auctōritātem dignitātem voluntāteque dēfenderās (Fam. i. 7, 2), *whose dignity, honor, and wishes you had defended.*

c. Two adjectives belonging to the same noun are regularly connected by a conjunction: as, —

multae et gravēs causae, *many weighty reasons.*

d. Many words properly adverbs may be used correlatively, and so become conjunctions, partly or wholly losing their adverbial force (see § 107). Such are, —

cum . . . tum, *while . . . so also (both . . . and).*

tum . . . tum, *now . . . now.*

modo . . . modo, *now . . . now.*

simul . . . simul, *at the same time . . . at the same time (at once . . . as well as).*

quā . . . quā, *now . . . now.*

nunc . . . nunc, *now . . . now.*

Thus, —

cum difficile est, tum nē aequum quidem (Laelius 26), *not only is it difficult, but even unjust.*

erumpunt saepe vitia amicōrum tum in ipsōs amicōs tum in aliēnōs (Laelius 76), *the faults of friends sometimes break out, now against their friends themselves, now against strangers.*

modo ait modo negat (Ter. Eun. 714), *now he says yes, now no.*

simul grātiās agit, simul grātulātur (Q. C. vi. 7), *he thanks him and at the same time congratulates him.*

quā maris quā fēminās (Plaut. Mil. 1113), *both males and females.*

e. Two conjunctions of similar meaning are often used together, for the sake of emphasis or to bind a sentence more closely to what precedes: as, at *vērō*, *but in truth, but surely, still, however*; *itaque* *ergō*, *accordingly then*; *namque*, *for*; *et-enim*, *for, you see, for of course* (§ 156. d).

f. For conjunctions introducing subjunctive clauses, see Chap. V.

3. Negative Particles.

NOTE. — For the list of negative particles, see § 149. e.

209. In the use of the Negative Particles, the following points are to be observed: —

a. Two negatives are equivalent to an affirmative, as in English (§ 150): *as, nēmō nōn videt, everybody sees.*

But a general negation is not destroyed —

1. By a following *nē* . . . *quidem*, *not even*, or *nōn modo*, *not only*:

as, —

numquam tū nōn modo ōtium, sed nē bellum quidem nisi nefārium concupisti (Catil. i. 25), *not only have you never desired repose, but you have never desired any war except one which was infamous.*

2. By succeeding negatives each introducing a separate subordinate member: *as*, —

eaque nesciēbant nec ubi nec quālia essent (Tusc. iii. 4), *they knew not where or of what kind these things were.*

3. By *neque* introducing a co-ordinate member: *as*, —

nequeo satis mirari neque cōnicere (Ter. Eun. 547), *I cannot wonder enough nor conjecture.*

b. The negative is frequently joined to some other word. Hence the forms of negation in Latin differ from those in English in many expressions. Thus, —

neque (*nec*) (*not et nōn*), *and not, but not* (neither . . . nor).

nec quisquam (*not et nēmō*), *and no one* (nor any one).

nūllī or *neutrī* *crēdō* (*not nōn crēdō ūllī*), *I do not believe either* (I believe neither).

negō *haec esse vērā* (*not dīcō nōn esse*), *I say this is not true* (I deny that these things are true).

sine ūllō periculō (less commonly *cum nūllō*), *with no danger* (without any danger).

nihil unquam *audīvī iucundius*, *I never heard anything more amusing* (nothing more amusing have I ever heard).

c. A statement is often made emphatic by denying its contrary (*Litotes*): *as*, —

nōn haec sine nūmine divōm ēveniunt (Æp. ii. 777), *these things do not occur without the will of the gods.*

haec nōn nimis exquirō (Att. vii. 18, 3), *not very much, i.e. very little.*

NOTE. — Compare *nōnnūllus*, *nōnnēmō*, etc. (§ 150. a).

d. The particle *immō*, *nay*, is used to contradict some part of a preceding statement or question, or its form; in the latter case, the same statement is often repeated in a stronger form, so that *immō* becomes nearly equivalent to *yes* (*nay but, nay rather*): *as*, —

causa igitur nōn bona est? immō optima (Att. ix. 7), *is the cause then not a good one? on the contrary, the best.*

e. Minus, less (especially with *si, if, quō, in order that*), and *minimē, least*, often have a negative force. Thus, —

si minus possunt, if they cannot. [For *quō minus*, see §§ 319. *e.*, 331. *e.*]
audācissimus ego ex omnibus? minimē (Rosc. Am. 2), *am I the boldest of them all? by no means* (not at all).

[For *ao not* in Prohibitions, see § 269. *a.*]

VI. — QUESTIONS.

210. Questions are either Direct or Indirect.

1. A Direct Question gives the exact words of the speaker: as, —
quid est? what is it?

2. An Indirect Question gives the substance of the question, adapted to the form of the sentence in which it is quoted. It depends on a verb or other expression of *asking, doubting, knowing*, or the like: as, —
rogāvit quid esset, he asked what it was. [Direct: *quid est, what is it?*]
nesciō ubi sim, I know not where I am. [Direct: *ubi sum, where am I?*]

Questions in Latin are introduced by special interrogative words, and are not distinguished by the order of words, as in English.

NOTE. — For the list of Interrogative Particles, see § 149. *d.*

a. A question of *simple fact*, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic *-ne* to the emphatic word: as, —

tūne id veritus es (Cic.), *did YOU fear that?*

hicine vir usquam nisi in patriā moriētur (Milon. 104), *shall THIS man die anywhere but in his native land?*

b. The interrogative particle *-ne* is sometimes omitted: as, —

patēre tua cōsilia nōn sentis (Cat. i. 1), *do you not see that your schemes are manifest?* (you do not see, eh?)

NOTE. — In such cases no sign of interrogation appears except in the punctuation, and it is often doubtful whether the sentence is a question or an ironical statement.

c. When the enclitic *-ne* is added to a negative word, — as in *nōnne*, — an *affirmative* answer is expected. The particle *num* suggests a *negative* answer. Thus, —

nōnne animadvertis (N. D. iii. 89), *do you not observe?*

num dubium est (Rosc. A. 107), *there is no doubt, is there?*

d. The particle *-ne* often when added to the verb, less commonly when added to some other word, has the force of *nōne*: as, —

meministine mē in senātū dicere (Cat. l. 7), *don't you remember my saying in the Senate?*

rēctēne interpretor sententiam tuam (Tuscul. iii. 37), *do I not rightly interpret your meaning?*

NOTE. — This was evidently the original meaning of *-ne*; but in most cases the negative force was lost and *-ne* was used merely to express a question. So the English interrogative *no?* shades off into *eh?*

REMARK. — The enclitic *-ne* is sometimes added to other interrogative words: as, *utrumne, whether; anne, or; quantane* (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 317), *how big? quōne malō* (id. 290), *by what curse?*

e. A question concerning *some special circumstance* is formed by prefixing to the sentence an interrogative pronoun or adverb (§ 106), as in English: as, —

quid est quod iam amplius expectēs (Cat. l. 6), *what is there for you to look for any more?*

quō igitur hæc spectant (Fam. vi. 6), *whither then is all this tending?*

Icare, ubi es (Ov. M. viii. 232), *Icarus, where are you?*

REMARK. — A question of this form becomes an exclamation by changing the inflection of the voice: as, *quālis vir erat!* *what a man he was!* *quot calamitatēs passi sumus!* *how many misfortunes have we suffered!*

f. The particles *nam* (enclitic) and *tandem* may be added to interrogative pronouns and adverbs for the sake of emphasis: as, —

quisnam est, pray who is it? [*quis tandem est?* would be stronger.]

ubinam gentium sumus (Cat. l. 9), *where in the world are we?*

in quā tandem urbe hōc disputant (Milon. 7), *in what city, pray, do they maintain this?*

NOTE. — *Tandem* is sometimes added to verbs: as, —

sin tandem (Fam. ix. 21), *you don't say so! (say you so, pray?)*

itane tandem, quæso, est (Ter. Heaut. 954), *it's so, is it then?*

itane tandem uxōrem dūxit Antiphō (Ter. Ph. 231), *so then, eh? Antiphō's got married?*

REMARK. — The form of Indirect Questions (in English introduced by *whether*, or by an interrogative pronoun or adverb) is in Latin the same as that of Direct; the difference being only in the verb, which in indirect questions regularly takes the Subjunctive (§ 334).

In indirect questions *num* loses its peculiar force (§ 210. c)

Double Questions.

211. A Double or Alternative Question is an inquiry as to which of two or more supposed cases is the true one.

In Double or Alternative Questions, *utrum* or *-ne*, *whether*, stands in the first member; *an*, *anne*, or; *annōn*, *neone*, or *not*, in the second; and usually *an* in the third, if there be one: as, —

utrum nescia, *an* prō nihilō id putās (Fam. x. 26), *is it that you don't know, or do you think nothing of it?*

quaerō servōne *an* liberōs (Ros. Am. 74), *I ask whether slaves or free.*

utrum hostem *an* vōs *an* fortunam utriusque populi ignorātis (Liv. xxi. 10, 6), *is it the enemy, or yourselves, or the fortune of the two peoples, that you do not know?*

REMARK. — *Annōn* is more common in direct questions, *necne* in indirect.

a. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member; in which case *an* or *-ne* (*anne*, *necne*) may stand in the second: as, —

Gabiniō dicam *anne* Pompeiō *an* utrique (Manil. 57), *shall I say to Gabinius, or to Pompey, or to both?*

sunt haec tua verba *necne* (Tusc. iii. 41), *are these your words or not?*

b. Sometimes the first member is omitted or implied, and *an* (*anne*) alone asks the question, — usually with indignation or surprise: as, —

an tū miserōs putās illōs (Tusc. i. 13), *what! do you think those men wretched?*

c. Sometimes the second member is omitted or implied, and *utrum* may ask a question to which there is no alternative: as, —

utrum in clārissimis est civibus is, quem . . . (Flacc. 45), *is he among the noblest citizens, whom, etc.?*

d. The following table exhibits the various forms of alternative questions: —

utrum . . . *an* . . . *an*

utrum . . . *annōn*

— . . . *an* (*anne*)

-ne . . . *an*

— . . . *-ne*, *necne*

-ne . . . *necne*

-ne . . . *-ne*

Question and Answer.

212. There is no one Latin word in common use meaning simply *yes* or *no*. In answering a question affirmatively, the verb or some other emphatic word is generally repeated; in answering negatively, the verb, etc., with *nō* or a similar negative: as, —

valetne, *is he well?* valet, *yes* (he is well).

eratne tecum, *was he with you?* nōn erat, *no* (he was not)

numquidnam novi *there is nothing new, is there?* nihil s̄nē, *oh! nothing.*

6. An intensive or negative particle, a phrase, or a clause is sometimes used to answer a direct question: thus,—

1. For YES:—

vērō, *in truth, true, no doubt, yes.* ita vērō, *certainly* (so in truth), etc.

etiam, *even so, yes, etc.*

s̄nē quidem, *yes, no doubt, etc.*

ita, *so, true, etc.*

ita est, *it is so, true, etc.*

s̄nē, *surely (soundly), no doubt, doubtless, etc.*

certē, *certainly, most assuredly, unquestionably, etc.*

factum, *true (it was done), it's a fact, you're right, etc.*

2. For NO:—

nōn, *not [so].*

nūllō modō, *by no means.*

minimē, *not at all* (in the smallest degree, cf. § 209. c).

minimē vērō, *no, not by any means; oh! no, etc.*

nōn quidem, *why, no; certainly not, etc.*

nōn hercle vērō, *why, gracious, no (certainly not, by Hercules)!*

Examples are:—

quidnam? an laudatīōnēs? ita, *why, what? is it eulogies? just so.*

aut etiam aut nōn respondere (Academ. ii. 104), *to answer (categorically) yes or no.*

estne ut fertur forma? s̄nē (Ter. Eun. 361), *is [she] as handsome as they say she is (is her beauty as it is said)? oh! yes.*

fugisne hinc? ego vērō ac lubēns (Ter. And. 337), *will you clear out from here? indeed I will, and be glad to.*

miser ergo Archelāus? certō si iniustus (Tuscul. v. 35), *was Archelāus wretched then? certainly, if he was unjust.*

haec contemnitis? minimē (De Orat. ii. 295), *do you despise these things? not at all.*

volueribusne et feris? minimē vērō (Tuscul. i. 104), *to the birds and beasts? why, of course not.*

ex tui animi sententiā tū uxōrem habēs? nōn hercle, ex mei animi sententiā (De Orat. ii. 260), *Lord! no, etc.*

7. In answering a double question, one member of the alternative, or some part of it, must be repeated: as,—

tūne an frāter erat, *was it you or your brother?* ego [eram], *it was I.*

REMARK.—From double (alternative) questions must be distinguished those which are in themselves single, but of which some detail only is alternative. These have the common disjunctive particles aut or vel (-ve). Thus,—

querō num infūstē aut improbē fēcirit (Off. iii. 54), *I ask whether he acted unjustly or even dishonestly.*

Here there is no double question. The only inquiry is whether the *quis* did either of the two things supposed, not which of the two he did.

CHAPTER II.—Construction of Cases.

NOTE.—The Cases of nouns express their relations to other words in the sentence. The most primitive way of expressing such relations is by mere juxtaposition of roots or stems. From this arises in time composition, the growing together of stems by means of which a complex expression arises with its parts mutually dependent. Thus such a complex as *armo-gero-* comes to mean *arm-bearing*; *sidi-oen-*, *playing on the lyre*. Later, Cases are formed by means of suffixes to express more definitely such relations, and Syntax begins. But the primitive method of composition still continues to hold an important place even in the most highly developed languages.

Originally the family of languages to which Latin belongs had at least seven cases, besides the Vocative. But in Latin the Locative and Instrumental were lost except in a few words (where they remained without being recognized as cases) and their functions were divided among the others (§§ 224, 242).

The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative express the oldest forms of case-relations (*Direct Cases*, § 31. *g.* note). The Nominative is the case of the Subject, and the *-s* in which it generally ends is thought to be a demonstrative pronoun (§ 32, n. 2). The Vocative, usually without a termination, or like the Nominative (§ 33. *a*), perhaps never had a suffix of its own. The Accusative, most frequently formed by the suffix *-m* (doubtless another demonstrative), originally connected the noun loosely with the verb-idea, not necessarily expressed by a verb proper, but as well by a noun or adjective (see page 235, head-note).

The other cases were formed by combination with various pronominal suffixes, and at first probably expressed relations of place or direction (*TO, FROM, AT, WITH*; *Indirect Cases*, § 31. *g.* note). But these original meanings have become confused with each other, and in many instances the cases are no longer distinguishable either in form or meaning. Thus the Locative was for the most part lost from its confusion with the Dative and Ablative, and its function was often performed by the Ablative, which is freely used to express the *place where* (§ 258. *f*). To indicate relations of place more precisely, Prepositions (originally Adverbs) gradually became necessary. These by degrees rendered the case-endings useless, and so have finally superseded them in all modern languages derived from Latin. But in Latin a large and various body of relations was still expressed by case-forms. It is to be noticed that cases in their *literal* use tended to adopt the preposition, and in their *figurative* uses to retain the old construction. (See Ablative of Separation, § 243; Ablative of Place and Time, §§ 254, 256.)

The word *cāsus*, *case*, is a translation of the Greek *πτῶσις*, *a falling away* (from the erect position). The term *πτῶσις* was originally applied to the Oblique Cases (§ 31. *g.*), to mark them as variations from the Nominative, which was called *ὀρθή* (*cāsus rēctus*). The later name *Nominative* (*cāsus nōminātivus*) is from *nōmīnō*, and means the *naming case*. The other case-names (except *ablative*) are of Greek origin. The name *Genitive* (*cāsus genētivus*) is a translation of *γενική* (*πτῶσις*), from *γίγνς* (*class*), and refers to the *class* to which a thing belongs. *Dative* (*cāsus dativus*, from *δῶ*) is translated from *δοτική*, and means the case of *giving*. *Accusative* (*accūsātivus*, from *accūsō*) is a mistranslation of *αἰτιατική* (the case of *causing*), from *αἰτία*, *cause*, and meant to the Romans the case of *accusing*. The name *Vocative* (*vocātivus*, from *voō*) is translated from *ἐλητική* (the case of *calling*). The name *Ablative* (*ablātivus*, from *ablātus*, *auferō*) means *taking from*. This case the Greek had lost.

I. — GENITIVE.

NOTE. — The Genitive is regularly used to express the relation of one noun to another. Hence it is sometimes called the *adjective case*, to distinguish it from the Dative and the Ablative, which may be called *adverbial cases*. Its uses may be classified as follows: —

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| | { 1. Of Possession (§ 214).
2. Of Source developed into Material (§ 214. e).
3. Of Quality (§ 215).
4. Of the Whole, after words designating a Part (Partitive, § 216).
5. With Nouns of Action and Feeling (§ 217). |
| I. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS: | |
| II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES: | |
| III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS: | |
| | { 1. Relative adjective (or Verbal) (§ 218. a, b).
2. Of Specification (later use) (§ 218. c).
1. Of Memory, Feeling, etc. (§§ 219, 221-23).
2. Of Accusing, etc. (Charge or Penalty) (§ 220). |

I. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

213. A noun used to limit or define another, and *not* meaning the same person or thing, is put in the Genitive.

This relation is most frequently expressed in English by the preposition OF: as, —

libri Cicerōnis, *the books of Cicero*.
 talentum auri, *a talent of gold*.
 vir summae virtūtis, *a man of the greatest courage*.
 pars militum, *a part of the soldiers*.
 cultus deōrum, *worship of the gods*.
 vacatiō labōris, *a respite from toil*.
 victor omnium gentium, *conqueror of all nations*.

In most constructions the genitive is either Subjective or Objective.

1. The Subjective genitive denotes that to which the noun limited belongs, or from which it is derived (§ 214).

2. The Objective genitive denotes that toward which an action or feeling is directed (§ 217 ff.).

This distinction is illustrated by the following example. The phrase *amor patris*, *love of a father*, may mean *love felt by a father*, *a father's love* (subjective genitive), or *love towards a father* (objective genitive).

NOTE. — The genitive seems to have denoted originally that to which something belongs, and hence it was originally subjective. The objective genitive is a later development, through such expressions as *mei laudatōres*, *my admirers*, in which the *admirers* are first conceived as *belonging to me*, and afterwards felt as *admiring me* (cf. § 217. note). For this reason the distinction between the subjective and the objective genitive is very unstable and constantly lost sight of (cf. § 199. e).

214. The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality.

1. Possessive Genitive

a. 1. The Possessive Genitive denotes the author or owner: as, —

libri Cicerōnis, *the books of* (written by) *Cicero*.

Alexandri equus, *Alexander's horse*.

2. For the genitive of possession a possessive or derivative adjective is often used, — regularly for the possessive genitive of the personal pronouns (§§ 190, 197. *a*): as, —

liber meus, *my book*. [Not liber mei.]

aliēna pericula, *other men's dangers*. [But also aliōrum.]

Sullāna tempora, *the times of Sulla*. [Oftener Sullae.]

b. The noun limited is understood in a few expressions: as, —

ad Castoris [aedēs], *to the* [temple] *of Castor*.

Hectoris Andromachē (Æn. iii. 319), *Hector's* [wife] *Andromache*.

Flaccus Claudī, *Flaccus* [slave] *of Claudius*.

c. The possessive genitive is often in the predicate, connected with its noun by a verb: as, —

haec domus est patris mei, *this house is my father's*.

tūtālāe nostrae [eōs] dūximus (Liv.), *we held them* [to be] *in our protection*.

oompēdī facere, *to save* (make of saving).

lucrī facere, *to get the benefit of* (make of profit).

iam mē Pompēi tōtum esse scis (Fam. ii. 13), *you know I am now all for Pompey* (all Pompey's).

REMARK. — These genitives bear the same relation to the examples in § 213 that a predicate noun bears to an appositive (§§ 184, 185).

d. An infinitive or a clause, when used as a noun, is often limited by a genitive in the predicate: as, —

neque suī iūdicī [erat] dēcernere (B. C. i. 35), *nor was it for his judgment to decide* (nor did it belong to his judgment).

oñiusvis hominis est errāre (Cic.), *it is any man's* [liability] *to err*.

negāvit mōris esse Graecōrum, ut in conviviō virōrum accumberent mulieres (Ver. ii. i. 66), *he said it was not the custom of the Greeks for women to appear as guests* (recline) *at the banquets of men*.

timidi est optāre necem (Ov. M. iv. 115), *it is for the coward to wish for death.*

stulti erat spērāre, suādēre impudentis (Phil. ii. 23), *it was folly to hope effrontery to urge* (it was the part of a fool, etc.).

sapientis (not *sapiēns*) *est pauca loqui*, *it is wise* (the part of a wise man) *to say little.*

REMARK. — This construction is regular with adjectives of the third declension instead of the neuter nominative (see the last two examples).

NOTE. — A derivative or possessive adjective may be used for the genitive in this construction, and *must* be used for the genitive of a personal pronoun: as, —

mentiri nōn est meum (not *mei*), *it is not for me to lie.*

hūmānum (for *hominis*) *est errāre*, *it is man's nature to err* (to err is human).

2. Genitive of Material.

e. The genitive may denote the Substance or Material of which a thing consists (compare §§ 216, 244): as, —

talentum auri, *a talent of gold.*

flūmina lactis, *rivers of milk.*

NOTE. — This is strictly a genitive of source (cf. *ex aurō factum*, *made [out] of gold*, § 244. c).

f. A limiting genitive is sometimes used instead of a noun in apposition (§ 183): as, —

nōmen insāniæ (for *nōmen insānia*), *the word madness.*

oppidum Antiochiæ (for *oppidum Antiochia*, the regular form), *the city of Antioch.* [A very wide use of this genitive, cf. e.]

g. For the genitive with the ablatives *causā*, *grātiā*, *for the sake of*; *propterea*, *because of*; and the indeclinable *instar*, *like*; also with *prīdiē*, *the day before*; *postridiē*, *the day after*; *tenus*, *as far as*, see § 223. e.

A. For the genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive, see § 208.

3. Genitive of Quality.

215. The genitive is used to denote Quality, but only when the quality is modified by an adjective: as, —

vir summæ virtutis, *a man of the highest courage.* [But not *vir virtutis*]

māgnæ est dēliberatiōis, *it is an affair of great deliberation.*

māgni formica laboris, *the ant [a creature] of great toil.*

ille autem sui iudici (Nep. Att. 9), *but he [a man] of independent [his own] judgment.*

NOTE.—Compare Ablative of Quality (§ 251). In expressions of quality, the genitive or the ablative may often be used indifferently: *as, praestantī prouidentia vir, a man of surpassing wisdom; māximī animī homō (Cic.), a man of the greatest courage.* But in general the Genitive is thus used rather of essential, the Ablative of special or incidental characteristics. The Genitive of Quality was no doubt originally subjective.

a. The genitive of quality is found in the adjective phrases *ēius modī, cūius modī* (equivalent to *tālis, such; quālis, of what sort*).

b. The genitive of quality, with numerals, is used to define measures of length, depth, etc. (*Genitive of Measure*): *as, —*

fōssa trium pedum, a trench of three feet [in depth].

mūrus sēdecim pedum, a wall of sixteen feet [high].

c. For Genitives of Quality used to express *indefinite value*, see § 252. a.

4. Partitive Genitive.

216. Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs.

a. Partitive words, followed by the genitive, are —

1. Nouns or Pronouns: *as, —*

pars militum, part of the soldiers.

quis nostrū, which of us (cf. e, below)?

nihil erat reliquī, there was nothing left.

2. Numerals, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Pronominal words like *alius*, etc.: *as, —*

alter cōsulum, one of the [two] consuls.

unus tribūnōrum, one of the tribunes (cf. c, below).

plūrimum tōtius Galliae equitātū valet (B. G. v. 3), is strongest in cavalry of all Gaul.

octāuus sapientum (Hor.), the eighth wise man (eighth of the wise men).

Hispanōrum alii vigilant alii student, of the Spaniards some are on the watch, others are eager.

māior frātrum, the elder of the brothers.

animālium fortiōra, the stronger [of] animals.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns, used as nouns: *as, —*

tantum spātī, so much [of] space.

aliquid nummōrum, a few pence (something of coins).

id loci (or locōrum), that spot of ground.

id temporis, at that time (§ 240. b).

plāna urbis, the level parts of the town.

quid novī, what news (what of new)?

REMARK.—The genitive of adjectives of the third declension is rarely used partitively. Thus—

nihil novi (gen.), *nothing new*; but

nihil memorabile (nom.), *nothing worth mention*. [Not *nihil memorabile*.]

4. Adverbs, especially of Quantity and Place: as, —

satis pecūiae, *money enough* (enough of money).

parum ōti, *not much ease* (too little of ease).

inde loci, *next in order* (thence of place).

tum temporis, *at that point of time* (then of time).

eō miseriarum (Sall.), *to that [pitch] of misery*.

ubinam gentium sumus, *where in the world are we* (where of nations)?

b. The poets and later writers often use the partitive genitive after adjectives, instead of a noun in its proper case: as, —

sequimur tē sancte deōrum (Æn. iv. 576), *we follow thee, O holy deity*.

[For *sancte deus*.]

nigrae lānarum (Plin. H. N. viii. 193), *black wools*. [For *nigrae lānae*.]

ēlēcti iuvenum (Liv. xxx. 9), *chosen youths*. [For *ēlēcti iuvenēs*.]

cūctōs hominum (Ov.), *all men*. [For *cūctōs hominēs*, compare c.]

c. Cardinal numerals regularly take the Ablative with *ē* (or *ex*) or *ex* instead of the Partitive Genitive. So also *quidam* commonly, and other words occasionally: as, —

ūnus ex tribūnis, *one of the tribunes*. [But also, *ūnus tribūnōrum*.]

minimus ex illis (Jug. 11), *the youngest of them*.

medius ex tribus (ib.), *the middle one of the three*.

quidam ex militibus, *certain of the soldiers*.

hominem de comitibus meis, *a man of my companions*.

d. *Uterque*, *both* (properly *each*), and *quisque*, *each*, with Nouns are used as adjectives in agreement, but with Pronouns always take a partitive genitive: as, —

uterque cōsul, *both the consuls*; but, *uterque nostrū*, *both of us*.

ūnus quisque vostrū, *each one of you*.

e. Numbers and words of quantity including the *whole* of any thing, take a case in agreement, and not the partitive genitive. So also words denoting a part when *only that part* is thought of. Thus, —

nōs omēs, *all of us* (we all). [Not *omēs nostrū*.]

quot sunt hostēs, *how many of the enemy are there?*

cavē inimicōs qui multi sunt,

multi militēs, *many of the soldiers*.

nēmō Rōmānus, *not one Roman*.

5. Objective Genitive.

The Objective Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

217. Nouns of *action*, *agency*, and *feeling* govern the genitive of the object: as, —

dēsiderium ōti, *longing for rest*.
 vacātiō mūneris, *relief from duty*.
 grātia benefici, *gratitude for kindness*.
 fuga malōrum, *refuge from disaster*.
 precātiō deōrum, *prayer to the gods*.
 contentiō honōrum, *struggle for office*.
 opiniō virtūtis, *reputation for valor*.

NOTE. — This usage is an extension of the idea of *belonging to* (Possessive Genitive). Thus in the phrase *odium Caesaris*, *hate of Caesar*, the hate in a passive sense *belongs to* Caesar, as *odium*, though in its active sense he is the *object* of it, as *hate* (cf. § 213. note). Hence the expression of such ideas often varies; see *a* and *c*, below.

a. The objective genitive is sometimes replaced by a possessive or other derivative adjective (see § 197. *a.* 2): as, —

mea invidia, *my unpopularity* (the dislike of which I am the object).
 meus laudātor, *my eulogist* (one who praises me).
 caedēs Clōdiāna (Cic.), *the murder of Clodius* (the Clodian murder!).
 metus hostilis (Jug. 41), *fear of the enemy* (hostile fear).

NOTE. — These possessives really represent possessive genitives (see note above).

b. Rarely the objective genitive is used with a noun already limited by another genitive: as, —

animi multārum rērum percursiō (Tusc. iv. 31), *the mind's traversing of many things*.

c. A noun with a preposition is often used instead of the objective genitive: as, —

odium in Caesarem, *hate of Caesar*. [Cf. *odium Caesaris*, note above.]
 merita ergā mē (Cic.), *services to me*.
 auxilium adversus inimicōs (id.), *help against enemies*.
 impetus in mē (id.), *attack on me*.
 exōcēsus ē vita (id.), *departure from life*. [Also, *exōcēsus vitæ*, Cic.]

NOTE. — So also in late writers the dative of reference (cf. § 226. *d.*): as, —
 longō bellō materia (Tac. H. i. 89), *resources for a long war*.

II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

218. Adjectives requiring an object of reference govern the objective genitive.

¹ As we say, "The Nathan murder."

These are called Relative Adjectives (*adjectiva relativa*) or Transitive Adjectives, and include the following:—

a. Adjectives denoting *desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt*, and their opposites: as,—

avidus laudis, greedy of praise.

fastidiōsus litterarum, disdainingly letters.

iūris peritus, skilled in law. [So also the ablative, *iūre*, cf. § 253.]

sui oblitus, forgetful of himself.

rationis et orationis expertes (Off. i. 50), *devoid of sense and speech.*

imilitaris imperitus, unskilled in military science.

vestri memor, mindful of you.

plenus fidei, full of good faith.

egēnus omnis spei, destitute of all hope.

potens tempestatum, having sway over the storms.

impotens irae, ungovernable in anger.

particeps coniurationis, sharing in the conspiracy.

affinis rei capitalis, involved in a capital crime.

insōns culpa, innocent of guilt.

b. Verbals in *-āx* (§ 164. I); also participles in *-ns* when used as adjectives, *i.e.* to denote a *disposition* and not a *particular act*: as,—

iustum et tenacem propositum virum (Hor. Od. iii. 3), *a man just and steady fast to his purpose.*

circus capax populi (Ov.), *a circus big enough to hold the people.*

eibi vique capacissimus (Liv.), *a very great eater and drinker* (very able to contain food and wine).

si quem tui amantiorem cognovisti (Q. Fr. i. 1), *if you have become acquainted with any one more fond of you.*

multitudo insolens belli (B. C. ii. 36), *a crowd unused to war.*

sitiens sanguinis, thirsting for blood (*i.e.* habitually bloodthirsty).

NOTE 1.—Participles in *-ns*, when used as participles, take the case regularly governed by the verb to which they belong: as,—

Tiberius sitiens sanguinem (Tac.), *Tiberius [then] thirsting for blood.*

NOTE 2.—Occasionally participial forms in *-ns* are treated as participles (see note 1) even when they express a *disposition* or *character*: as,—

virtus quam alii ipsam temperantiam dicunt esse, alii obtemperantem temperantiae praeceptis et eam subsequentem (Tuscul. iv. 30), *observant of the teachings of temperance and obedient to her.*

c. The poets and later writers use the genitive with almost any adjective, to denote that *with reference to which* the quality exists (*Genitive of Specification*): as,—

callidus rei militaris (Tac. H. ii. 31), *skilled in soldiery.*

pauper aquae (Hor. Od. iii. 30. 11), *scant of water.*

notus animi paterni (id. ii. 2. 6), *famed for a paternal spirit.*

fessū vērum (Æn. i. 178), *weary of toil*.

integer vitæ scelerisque purus (Hor.), *upright in life, and unstained by guilt*.

NOTE 1. — For the Ablative of Specification, the prose construction, see § 253.

NOTE 2. — The Genitive of Specification is only an extension of the construction with relative adjectives. Thus *callidus* denotes *knowledge*; *pauper*, *want*; *purus*, *innocence*; and so these words in a manner belong to the classes under a.

REMARK. — Adjectives of *feeling* are followed by the apparent genitive *animi* (really locative, cf. § 223. c): as, —

aeger animi, *sick at heart*.

confusus animi, *disturbed in spirit*.

So by imitation —

sānus mentis et animi (Plaut. Trin. 454), *sound in mind and heart*.

audāx ingenii (late), *bold in disposition*.

d. For adjectives of *likeness*, etc., with the genitive, apparently objective, see § 234. d.

III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

The Objective Genitive is used with some verbs.

1. Remembering and Forgetting.

219. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a *continued state of mind*, but the Accusative when used of a *single act*: as, —

1. Genitive: —

recordāns superiōris trānsmissiōnis (Att. iv. 19), *remembering your former crossing*.

animus meminit præteritōrum (Div. i. 63), *the soul remembers the past*.

venit mihi in mentem illius diēi, *I bethink me of that day* (it comes into my mind of that day).

obliviscere caedis atque incendiōrum (Cat. i. 6), *turn your mind from slaughter and conflagrations*.

nec unquam obliviscar illius noctis (Plancius 101), *and I shall never forget that night*.

2. Accusative: —

tōtam causam oblitus est (Bru. 217), *he forgot the whole case*.

pueritiæ memoriā recordārī (Arch. 1), *to recall the memory of childhood*.

a. The Accusative is almost always used of a person or thing remembered by an eye-witness: as, —

memineram Paullum (Lael. 9), *I remembered Paulus*.

b. *Recordor*, *recollect*, *recall*, denotes a *single act* and is therefore almost always followed by the Accusative: as, —

recordāre oñsensum illum theātri (Phil. i. 30), *recall that unanimous agreement of the [audience in the] theatre.*

recordāmini omnis civilis dissēnsiōēs (Cat. iii. 24), *recall all the civil wars.*

c. Verbs of *reminding* take with the accusative of the person a genitive of the thing; except in the case of a neuter pronoun, which is put in the accusative (cf. § 238. b).

Catilīna admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae (Sall. Cat. 21), *Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his cupidity.*

unum illud monēre tē possum, *I can remind you of this one thing.*

So *admoneō*, *commoneō*, *commonefaciō*, *commonefiō*. But *moneō* with the genitive is found only in late writers (cf. § 238. b. note).

NOTE. — All these verbs often take *dē* with the ablative, and the accusative of nouns as well as of pronouns is sometimes used with them: as, —

saepius tē admoneō *dē* *syngraphā* Sittianā (Fam. viii. 4, 5), *I remind you again and again of the bond of Sittius.*

officium vestrum ut vōs malō cōgātis *commone*rier (Plaut. Ps. 150), *to be reminded of your duty.*

2. Charge and Penalty.

220. Verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting take the genitive of the *charge* or *penalty*: as, —

arguit mē furti, *he accuses me of theft.*

peculātūs damnātus (pecūniae publicae damnātus) (Flacc. 43), *condemned for embezzlement.*

videō nōn tē absolutum esse improbitātis, sed filios damnātos esse caedis (Ver. ii. i. 72), *I see, not that you were acquitted of outrage, but that they were condemned for homicide.*

2. Peculiar genitives, under this construction, are —

capitis, as in *damnare capitis*, *to sentence to death.*

maiestātis [laesae], *treason* (crime against the dignity of the State).

repetundarum [rerum], *extortion* (lit. of an action for *claiming back* money wrongfully taken).

voti, in *damnatus* or *reus voti*, *bound* [to the payment] of *one's vow*; i.e. *successful* in one's effort.

pecūniae (*damnare*, *iudicare*, see note under 3, below).

duplici, etc., as in *duplici condemnare*, *condemn to pay twofold.*

3 Other constructions for the charge or penalty are —

1. The ablative of price: regularly of a *definite amount* of fine, and often of indefinite penalties (cf. § 252. note): as, —

Frusinates tertiam partem agri damnati (Liv. x. 1), *the people of Frosinus condemned [to forfeit] a third part of their land.*

vitia autem hominum atque fraudes damnis ignominia vinculis verberibus exiliis morte damnantur (De O. i. 194), *but the vices and crimes of men are punished with fines, dishonor, chains, scourging, exile, death.*

2. The ablative with *dē*, or the accusative with *inter*, in idiomatic expressions: as, —

dē aleā, for *gambling*.

dē ambitū, for *bribery*.

inter sicarios, as *an assassin* (among the assassins).

dē vi et maiestatis damnātū (Philip. i. 21), *convicted of assault and treason*.

3. The accusative with *ad* or *in* to express the penalty (*late*): as, —

ad mortem (Tac.), *to death*.

ad (in) *metallū*, *to the mines*.

NOTE. — The origin of these genitive constructions is pointed at by *pecuniae damnare* (Aul. Gell. xx. i. 38), *to condemn to pay money*, in a case of injury to the person; *quantae pecuniae iudicāti essent* (id. xx. i. 47), *how much money they were adjudged to pay*, in a mere suit for debt; *confessi aeris ac debiti iudicāti* (ibid.), *adjudged to owe an admitted sum due*. These expressions show that the genitive of the penalty comes from the use of the genitive of value to express a *sum of money due* either as a debt or as a fine. Since in early civilizations all offences could be compounded by the payment of fines, the genitive came to be used of other punishments, not pecuniary. From this to the genitive of the actual crime is an easy transition, inasmuch as there is always a confusion between *crime and penalty* (cf. Eng. *guilty of death*).

3. Verbs of Feeling.

221. Many verbs of Feeling take the genitive of the object which excites the feeling. Thus —

a. Verbs of pity, as *miseror* and *miserescō*, are followed by the genitive: as, —

miserescite regis (Æn. viii. 573), *pity the king*.

miserere animi nō digna ferentis (id. ii. 144), *pity a soul that endures unworthy things*.

But *miseror*, *commiseror*, *bewail*, take the accusative: as, —

commūnem condiōnem miserārī (Murena 55), *bewail the common lot*.

b. The impersonals *miseret*, *paenitet*, *piget*, *pudet*, *taedet* (or *pertaesum est*), take the Genitive of the *cause of the feeling* and the Accusative of the *person affected*: as, —

hō hominēs infāmiae suae neque pudet neque taedet (Verr. i. 35), *these men are neither ashamed nor weary of their dishonor*. [Cf. *id repentit him of the evil*.]

mē quidem miseret parietum ipsōrum (Phil. ii. 69), *for my part I pity the very walls*.

mē civitātis mōrum piget taedetque (Sall. Jug. 4), *I am sick and disgusted with the ways of the state*.

decemvirōrum vōs pertaesum est (Liv. iii. 67), *you become tired of the decemvirs*.

c. An infinitive, a clause, or the accusative (possibly nominative) of a neuter pronoun may be used with these impersonal verbs (except *miseret*) instead of the genitive of a noun: as, —

mē paenitet haec fecisse, *I repent of having done this.*

nihil quod paenitere possit (Cic.), *nothing that may cause repentance.*

d. *Miseret*, etc., are sometimes used personally with a neuter pronoun as subject: as, —

nōne tē haec pudet (Ter. Ad.), *do not these things shame you?*

4. Interest and Rēfert.

222. The impersonals *interest* and *rēfert* take the genitive of the person (rarely of the thing) affected: as, —

Clōdī intererat Milōnem perire (Mil. 56), *it was the interest of Clodius that Milo should die.*

faciendum esse aliquid quod illōrum magis quam suā rētulisse videretur (Jug. 111), *that something must be done which seemed to be more for their interest than his own.*

videō enim quid meā intersit, quid utriusque nostrū (Fam. vii. 23), *for I see what is for my good and for the good of us both.*

The subject of the verb is a neuter pronoun or a substantive clause.

a. Instead of the Genitive of a Personal Pronoun the corresponding Possessive is used in the ablative singular feminine after *interest* or *rēfert*: as, —

quid tuā id rēfert? māgni (Ter. Ph. 723), *how does that concern you?*
much. [See also the last two examples above.]

vehementer intererat vestrā qui patrēs estis (Plin. Ep. iv. 13), *it would be very much to your advantage, you who are fathers.*

b. The accusative with *ad* is used with *interest* and *rēfert* to express the thing *with reference to which* one is interested: as, —

māgni ad honōrem nostrum interest (Fam. xvi. 1), *it is of great consequence to our honor.*

rēfert etiam ad fructū (Varr. R. R. i. 16, 6) *it makes a difference as to the crop.*

NOTE. — Very rarely the Person is expressed by *ad* and the Accusative, or (with *rēfert*) by the Dative (probably a popular corruption): as, —

quid id ad mē aut ad meam rem rēfert (Plautus, Persa 513), *what difference does that make to me or to my interests?*

quid rēferat intrā naturae finēs viventi (Hor. Sat. i. 1. 49), *what difference does it make to me who live within the limits of natural desire?*

So, nil rēferre dēdōcōri (Tac. Ann. xv. 63), *that it makes no difference as to the disgrace.*

3. Verbs of Plenty and Want.

223. Some verbs of Plenty and Want govern the genitive: as, —

quid est quod dēfēnsiōnis indigeat? (Rosc. Am. 34), *what is there that needs defence?*

satagit rērum suārum, *he has his hands full with his own affairs.*

NOTE. — But verbs of plenty and want more commonly take the ablative (see §§ 243. a, 248. c.), except egeō, indigeō, satagō.

6. Other Verbs.

a. The genitive sometimes follows *potior*, *get possession of*; as always in the phrase *potiri rērum*, *to be master of affairs*. Thus, —

illius rēgni potiri (Fam. i. 7, 5), *to become master of that kingdom.*

Cleanthes solem dominari et rērum potiri putat (Acad. ii. 126), *Cleanthes thinks the sun holds sway and is lord of the universe.*

But *potior* usually takes the ablative (see § 249).

b. Some other verbs rarely take the Genitive: —

1. By analogy with those mentioned in § 221: as, —

neque huius sis veritus feminae primariae (Ter. Ph. 971), *and you had no respect for this highborn lady.*

2. As akin to adjectives which take the genitive: as, —

fastidit mei (Plaut. Aul. 245), *he disdains me.* [Cf. *fastidiosus*.]

studet tui (quoted N. D. iii. 72), *he is zealous for you.* [Cf. *studiosus*.]

3. In imitation of the Greek: as, —

iustitiaene prius mirer, belline laborum (Æn. xi. 126), *shall I rather admire [his] justice or his toils in war?*

neque ille sepositi ciceris nec longae invidit avenae (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 84), *nor does he grudge his garnered peas, etc.* [But cf. *invidus*, *parous*.]

abstineto irarum (Hor. Od. iii. 27. 69), *refrain from wrath* (but cf. §§ 223, 243. f. Rem.).

laborum decipitur (Hor. Od. ii. 13. 38), *he is beguiled of his woes.*

nec sermonis fallēbar (Plaut. Ep. 239), *nor did I miss the conversation.*

me laborum levās (Plaut. Rud. 247), *you relieve me of my troubles.*

c. The apparent Genitive *animi* (really Locative) is used with a few verbs of feeling and the like (cf. § 218. c. Rem.): as, —

Antiphō me excruciat animi (Ter. Ph. 187), *Antipho tortures my mind* (me in my mind).

animi pendeō (Pl. Merc. 127), *I am in suspense.*

me animi fallit (Lucr. i. 922), *my mind deceives me.*

So, by analogy, *desipiebam mentis* (Pl. Epid. 138), *I was out of my head.*

IV. PECULIAR GENITIVES.

d. A genitive occurs rarely in Exclamations, in imitation of the Greek (*Genitive of Exclamation*): as, —

dī immortalēs, mercimōnī lepidī (Plaut. *Most.* 912), *good heavens! what a charming bargain.*

foederis heu tacitī (Prop. *iv.* 7. 21), *alas for the unspoken agreement.*

e. The genitive is often used with the ablatives *causā*,¹ *grātiā*, *for the sake of*; *ergō*, *because of*; and the indeclinable *īnstar*, *like*; also with *prīdiēs*, *the day before*; *postrīdiēs*, *the day after*; *tenus*, *as far as*: as, —

honōris causā, *with due respect* (for the sake of honor).

verbi grātiā, *for example.*

ēius lēgis ergō, *on account of this law.*

equus īnstar montis (Æn. *ii.* 15), *a horse like* (the image of) *a mountain.*

laterum tenus (Æn. *x.* 210), *as far as the sides.*

NOTE 1. — Of these the genitive with *causā* is like that in *nōmen īnsāniāe* (§ 214. f). The others are of various origin.

NOTE 2. — In prose of the Republican Period *prīdiēs* and *postrīdiēs* are thus used only in the expressions *prīdiēs* (*postrīdiēs*) *ēius diēi*, *the day before (after) that* (cf. *the eve, the morrow of that day*). Tacitus uses the construction with other words: as, *postrīdiēs īnsidiārum*, *the day after the plot*. For the accusative, see § 261. a. *Tenus* takes also the ablative (§ 260. e).

II. — DATIVE.

NOTE. — The Dative seems to be closely akin to the Locative (cf. *οἶκος*, *at home*, with *οἰκω*, *to a house*), and must have had the primary meaning of *to or towards*. But this local meaning appears in Latin only in the poets (§ 225. d, 3) and in some adverbial forms (as *ecce*, *illū*, *thither*, cf. § 148. note, 7).

In Latin the Dative has two classes of derived meanings: —

1. The Dative denotes an object not *as caused* by the action, or *directly affected* by it (like the Accusative), but *as reciprocally sharing* in the action or *receiving it consciously* or *actively*. Thus in *dedit puerō librum*, *he gave the boy a book*, or *fecit mihi iniuriā*, *he did me a wrong*, there is an idea of the *boy receiving the book*, and of *my feeling the wrong*. Hence expressions denoting *persons or things with personal attributes* are more likely to be in the dative than those denoting mere things.² See examples under § 224.

This difference between the Accusative and the Dative (*i.e.* between the Direct and the Indirect Object) depends upon the point of view implied in the verb or existing in the mind of the writer. Hence verbs of similar meaning (to an English mind) often differ in the case of their object (see § 227. a and b).

2. The Dative is used to express the *purpose* of an action or *that for which it serves* (see § 233). This construction is especially used with abstract expressions, or those implying an action.

¹ Compare the English *for his sake*, *on my account*.

² So in Spanish the dative is used whenever a *person* is the object of an action; *yo veo al hombre*, *I see [to] the man*.

These two classes of Datives approach each other in some cases and are occasionally confounded, as in § 234 (cf. especially § 234. *δ*).

The uses of the Dative, arranged practically, are the following:—

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. As INDIRECT OBJECT
(general use): | { 1. With Transitives (§ 225).
2. With Intransitives (§§ 226-28, 230).
1. Of Possession (with <i>esse</i>) (§ 231).
2. Of Agency (with Gerundive) (§ 232).
3. Of Purpose or End (predicate use) (§ 233).
4. Of Fitness, etc. (with Adjectives) (§ 234).
5. Of Reference (<i>dativus commodi</i>) (§§ 235, 236). |
| 2. Special or Idiomatic
Uses: | |

224. The Dative is used of the object *indirectly affected* by an action.

This is called the Indirect Object (§ 177). It is usually denoted in English by the Objective with *to* or *for*. Thus,—

dat librum puerō, he gives a book to the boy.

cēdite tempori, yield to the occasion.

prōvincia Cicerōnī obtigit, the province fell by lot to Cicero.

inimicis nōn crēdimus, we do not trust [to] our enemies.

civitātis salūtī cōsulite, consult for the safety of the State.

sic mihi vidētur, so it seems to me.

indicāvit mihi Pansa, Pansa has made known to me.

hōc tibi spondeō, I promise [to] you this.

1. Indirect Object with Transitives.

225. The Dative of the Indirect Object with the Accusative of the Direct may be used with any transitive verb whose meaning allows (see § 177): as,—

dō tibi librum, I give you a book.

illud tibi affirmō (Fam. i. 7), this I assure you.

commendō tibi cūs omnia negōtia (Fam. i. 3), I put all his affairs in

dabis profectō misericordiae quod Irācundiae negāvistī (Dei. 40), you will surely grant to mercy what you refused to wrath.

litterās ā tē mihi stator tuus reddidit (Fam. ii. 17), delivered to me a letter.

a. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive use (§ 177. note). These take either the Accusative with the Dative, or the Dative alone: as,—

hanc pecūniam tibi crēdō, I trust this money to you. [Transitive.]

in hāc rē tibi crēdō, I trust you in this. [Intransitive.]

δ Certain verbs implying motion vary in their construction between the Dative of the Indirect Object and the Accusative of the End of Motion (§ 258. *δ*). Thus—

1. Some verbs take the Accusative (with or without a preposition) instead of the Indirect Object, when the idea of Motion prevails (§ 258): as, —

litteras quas ad Pompēium scripsi (Att. iii. 8), *the letter which I have written [and sent] to Pompey.* [Cf. *nōn quō habērem quod tibi scriberem* (Att. iv. 4), *not that I had anything to write to you.*]

litterae extemplō Rōmam scriptae (Liv. xli. 16), *a letter was immediately written [and sent] to Rome.*

hostēs in fugam dat (B. G. v. 51), *he puts the enemy to flight.* [Cf. *ut mē dem fugae* (Att. vii. 23), *to take to flight.*]

cūr saepius ad mē litterās dedissēs (Fam. iv. 4), *why you had several times written letters [addressed] to me.*

nūllās eis praeterquam ad tē et ad Brūtum dedi litteras (id. iii. 7), *I have given to them (the messengers) no letters except (addressed) to you, etc.*
omnēs rem ad Pompēium dēferri volunt (id. i. 1), *all wish the matter to be put in the hands of Pompey.*

an iterum sē reddat in arma (Æn. x. 684), *or should throw himself again into the fight (only poetic).*

2. On the other hand, many verbs usually followed by the Accusative with *ad* or *in*, take the Dative when the idea of motion is merged in some other idea: as, —

nec quicquam quod nōn mihi Caesar dētulerit (Fam. iv. 13), *and nothing which Caesar did not communicate to me.*

mihi litterās mittere (Fam. vii. 12), *to send me a letter.*

eum librum tibi misi (id. vii. 19), *I sent you that book.*

Catōnem tuum mihi mitte (id. vii. 24), *send me your Cato.*

cūrēs ut mihi vehantur (id. viii. 4, 5), *take care that they be conveyed to me.*

cum alius aliū subsidium ferrent (B. G. ii. 26), *while one lent aid to another.*

quibus (cōpiis rex Dēiotarus) imperātōribus nostris auxilia mitteret (Deiot. 22), *with which (troops) king D. might send reinforcements to our generals.*

3. In poetry the End of Motion is often expressed by the dative (see § 258. note 1).

c. For the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing after verbs of *threatening* and the like, see § 227. f.

d. Certain verbs may take either the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (in a different sense) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: as, —

dōnat corōnās suis, *he presents wreaths to his men; or,*

dōnat suis corōnās, *he presents his men with wreaths.*

vincula exuere sibi (Ov. M. vii. 772), *to shake off the least (from himself).*

omnēs armīs exuit (B. G. v. 51), *he stripped them all of their arms.*

arā sanguine adspargere (N. D. iii. 88), *to sprinkle the altar with blood.*

arā sanguinem adspargere, *to sprinkle blood upon the altar.*

Such are *dōnō*, *impertiō*, *indnō*, *exuō*, *adspergō*, *inspergō*, *circumdō*, *circumfundō*, *prohibeō*, *interclūdō*, and in poetry *accingō*, *implicō*, and similar verbs.

NOTE 1. — *Interdicō*, *forbid*, takes either (1) the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing, or (2) the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing: as, —

interdixit histriōnibus scenam (Suet. Dom. 7), *he forbade the actors* [to appear on] *the stage* (he prohibited the stage to the actors). [Cf. *interdictum est mare Antiātī populō* (Liv. viii. 14), *the sea was forbidden to the people of Antium.*]

fēminīs (dat.) *purpuræ ūsū interdīcēmus* (Liv. xxiv. 7), *shall we forbid women the wearing of purple?*

aquā et ignī alicui interdīcere, *to forbid the use of fire and water.*

NOTE 2. — The Dative with the Accusative is used in poetry with many verbs of *preventing*, *protecting*, and the like, which usually take the Accusative and Ablative. *Interclūdō* and *arceō* sometimes take the Dative and Accusative, even in prose: as, —

hīc omnis aditūs ad Sullam interclūdere (Rosc. Amer. 110), *to shut these men off from all access to Sulla* (close to them every approach).

[Cf. *utī frūmentō commēatūque Caesarem interclūderet* (B. G. i. 48). *to shut Caesar off from grain and supplies.*]

hunc (oestrum) *arcebis pecorī* (Georg. iii. 154), *you shall keep this away from the flock.* [Cf. *illum arcuit Galliā* (Phil. v. 37), *he excluded him from Gaul.*]

sōlstitium pecorī dēfendite (Ecl. vii. 47), *keep the summer heat from the flock.*

e. Verbs which in the active voice take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive: as, —

hæc nobīs nūntiantur, *these things are told us.* [Active: *hæc [quīdam] nobīs nūntiat.*]

Crassō dīvitiae nōn invidentur, *Crassus is not envied for his wealth.* [Active: *Crassō dīvitias nōn invidet.*]

decem talenta oppidānis imperantur, *ten talents are exacted of the townspeople.* [Active: *imperat oppidānis decem talenta.*]

2. Indirect Object with Intransitives.

226. The Dative of the Indirect Object may be used with any Intransitive verb whose meaning allows: as, —

cēdant arma togæ (Phil. ii. 20), *let arms give place to the gown.*

Cæsari respondet, *he replies to Caesar.*

Cæsari respondētur, *Caesar is replied to* (see § 230).

crēdimus nūntiō, *we believe the messenger.*

nūntiō crēditur, *the messenger is believed.*

* respondi m̄ximis criminibus (Phil. ii. 36), *I have answered the heaviest charges.*

ut ita cuique ēveniat (id. 119), *that it may so turn out to each.*

NOTE 1.—Intransitive verbs have no Direct Object. The Indirect Object, therefore, in these cases stands alone (but cf. § 225. a).

NOTE 2.—Cēdō, *yield*, sometimes takes the Ablative of the thing along with the Dative of the person: as,—

cēdere alicui possēssione hortōrum (Milon. 75), *to give up to one the possession of a garden.*

2. Many phrases consisting of a noun with the copula *sum* or a copulative verb are equivalent to an intransitive verb and take a kind of indirect object (cf. § 235): as,—

auctor esse alicui, *to advise or instigate one* (cf. *persuādeō*).

quis huic rei testis est (Quinc. 37), *who testifies (is witness) to this fact?*
is finis populatiōnibus fuit (Liv. ii. 30), *this put an end to the raids.*

b. The dative is sometimes used without a copulative verb in a sense approaching that of the genitive (cf. §§ 227. d, 235. a): as,—

lēgātus Cæsari, *a lieutenant to Cæsar* (i.e. a man assigned to Cæsar).

hērēs frātri suō, *his brother's heir* (heir to his brother).

ministri sceleribus, *agents of crime.*

NOTE.—The cases in a and b differ from the constructions of § 227. note 2, and § 235 in that the dative is more closely connected in idea with some single word to which it serves as an indirect object.

3. Dative with Special Verbs.

Many verbs of apparently transitive meaning in English correspond to verbs intransitive in Latin. Thus:—

227. Most verbs signifying *to favor, help, please, trust*, and their contraries; also *to believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare*,¹ take the dative: as.—

cūr mihi invidēs, *why do you envy me?*

mihi parcat atque ignōscit, *he spares and pardons me.*

ignōsce patri dōlōri (Liv. iii. 48), *excuse a father's grief.*

sentibus opitulārī poteram (Fam. iv. 13), *I was able to help the guilty.*

nōn omnibus serviō (Att. xiii. 49), *I am not a servant to every man.*

cum cēteris tum mihi ipsi displiceō (Fam. iv. 13), *I dissatisfy other people and myself too.*

¹ These include, among others, the following: *adversor, crēdō, faveō, fidō, ignōscō, imparō, invidē, irascor, suscēnso, resistō, noceō, paro, pareō, placeō, serviō, studeō, suādeō (persuādeō), temperō, (ob)temperō, dictō audiens sum.*

nōn parcam operae (Id. xiii. 27), *I will spare no pains.*

sic mihi persuāsi (Cat. M. 78), *so I have persuaded myself.*

mihi Fabius ignōscere dēbebit si minus eius fāmæ parcere vidēbor quam ante cōsului (Tull. 3), *Fabius will have to pardon me if I seem to spare his reputation less than, etc.*

huic legiōni Caesar cōfidēbat māximē (B. G. I. 40), *in this legion Caesar trusted most.*

NOTE 1.—In these verbs the Latin retains an original intransitive meaning. Thus: *invidēre*, *to envy*, was originally *to look askance at one*; *servire* is *to be a slave to*; *suādere* is *to make a thing pleasant (sweet) to one*.

NOTE 2.—Some common phrases regularly take the dative precisely like verbs of similar meaning. Such are—

praestō esse, *be on hand* (cf. *adesse*).

mōrem gerere, *humor* (cf. *mōrigerārī*).

grātum facere, *do a favor* (cf. *grātificārī*).

dictō audiēns esse, *be obedient* (cf. *oboedīre*).

cui fidem habēbat (B. G. I. 19), *in whom he had confidence* (cf. *cōfidēbat*).

So also many phrases where no corresponding verb exists. Such are—

bene (male, pulchre, aegrē, etc.) *esse*, *to be well (ill, etc.) off*.

iniūriam facere, *do injustice to*.

diem dicere, *bring to trial* (name a day for, etc.).

agere grātiās, *to express one's thanks*.

habēre grātiām, *to feel thankful*.

referre grātiām, *to repay a favor*.

opus esse, *be necessary*.

damnum dare, *inflict an injury*.

acceptum (expēsum) ferre (esse), *to credit (charge)*.

honōrem habēre, *to pay honor to*.

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings take the Accusative.

Such are *iuvō*, *adiuvō*, *help*; *laedō*, *injure*; *iubeō*, *order*; *desiciō*, *fail*; *dēlectō*, *please*. Thus,—

hic pulvis oculum meum laedit, *this dust hurts my eye*. [Cf. *multa oculis nocent*, *many things are injurious to the eyes*.]

b. Some verbs are used *transitively* with the Accusative or *intransitively* with the Dative without perceptible difference of meaning.

Such are *adūlor* (generally accusative), *aemulor* (rarely dative), *oomitor*, *dēspērō*, *praestōlor*, *medeor*, *medicoor*. Thus,—

adūlātus est Antōniō (Nep. Att. 8), *he flattered Antony*.

adūlari Nerōnem (Tac. Ann. xvi. 19), *to flatter Nero*.

c. Some verbs are used *transitively* with the Accusative or *intransitively* with the Dative with a difference of meaning.¹

¹ See Lexicon under *conveniō*, *cupiō*, *insistiō*, *maneo*, *praevertiō*, *recipiō*, *renūntiō*, *solvō*, *succediō*, *oaveō*.

partē civium cōsulant (Off. l. 85), *they consult for a part of the citizens.*

cum tū cōsuluissem (Fam. xi. 29), *when I had consulted you.*

metuens pueris (Plaut. Am. 1113), *anxious for the children.*

nec metuunt deōs (Ter. Hec. 772), *they fear not even the gods.* [So also timeō.]

prospicite patriae (Cat. iv. 3), *have regard for the State.*

prospicere sēdem senectūti (Liv. iv. 49), *to provide a habitation for old age*
[So also prōvideō.]

NOTE.—Fidō and cōfidō, *trust*, take either the Dative or the Ablative: as,—
legiōis decimae cui quam m̄ximē cōfidēbat (B. G. i. 42), *of the tenth*
legion, in which he had the utmost confidence.

multum nātūrā loci cōfidēbant (B. G. i. 9), *they had great confidence in*
the strength of their position (the nature of the place).

d. Some verbal nouns—as *Insidiae, ambush; invidia, envy*—
take the dative like the verbs from which they are derived: as,—

invidia cōsuli (Sall.), *ill-will against the consul* (cf. invidēō).

obtemperatiō lēgibus (Leg. i. 42), *obedience to the laws* (cf. obtemperō).

sibi ipsi respōsiō (De Or. iii. 54), *an answer to himself* (cf. respondēō).

NOTE.—In these cases the dative depends immediately upon the verbal force
of the noun and not on any complex idea (cf. § 226. a and b).

e. The Dative is also used:—

1. With the impersonals libet (lubet), *it pleases; licet, it is*
allowed: as,—

quod mihi m̄ximē lubet (Fam. i. 8, 3), *what most pleases me.*

quasi tibi nōn liceret (Fam. vi. 8), *as if you were not permitted.*

2. With verbs compounded with satis, bene, and male: as,—

mihi ipse numquam satisfaciō (Fam. i. 1), *I never satisfy myself.*

optimō virō maledicere (Deiot. 28), *to speak ill of a most excellent man.*

pulchrum est benefacere reipublicae (Sall. Cat. 3), *it is a glorious thing to*
benefit the State.

NOTE.—These are not real compounds, but phrases, and were apparently felt
as such by the Romans. Thus:—

satis officiō meō, satis illōrum voluntāti qui ā mē hōc perfiverunt factum
esse arbitrabor (Verres v. 130), *that enough has been done for, etc.*

3. With the following: grātificor, grātulor, haereō (rarely), nūbō,
permittō, plaudō, probō, studeō, supplicō, exoellō: as,—

haerentem capiti corōnam (Hor. S. i. 10), *a wreath clinging to the head.*

Pompiliū grātificārī putant (Fam. i. 1), *they suppose they are doing*
Pompey a service.

tibi permittō respondēre (N. D. iii. 4), *I give you leave to answer.*

grātulor tibi, mi Balbe (Fam. vi. 12), *I congratulate you, my dear Balbus.*

mihi plaudō ipse domi (Hor. S. i. l. 66), *I applaud myself at home.*

cūr tibi hoc nōn grātificer nesciō (Fam. i. 10), *why I should not gratify you in this I don't know.*

cum inimici M. Fontei vōbīs ac populō Rōmānō minentur, amici ac propinqui supplicent vōbīs (Fonteius 35), *while the enemies of M. Fonteius are threatening you and the Roman people too, while his friends and relatives are beseeching you.*

ut voluerint populō supplicāre (Leg. Agr. ii. 18), *when they wished to make supplication to the people.*

NOTE. — Misceō and iungō sometimes take the dative (see § 248. a. Rem.). Haereō usually takes the ablative, with or without in.

f. Many verbs ordinarily intransitive often have an Accusative of the direct object along with the Dative of the indirect (cf. § 225. a): as, —

cui cum rēx crucem minitārētur (Tus. i. 102), *when the king threatened him with the cross.*

imperat oppidānis decem talenta, *he exacts of the townspeople ten talents.*

omnia sibi ignōscere (Vell. ii. 30), *to pardon one's self everything.*

Crassō divitiās nōn invidēō, *I do not envy Crassus his wealth.*

4. Dative with Compounds.

228. Most verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super, and some with circum, are followed by the dative of the indirect object: as, —

neque enim adsentior eis (Lael. 13), *for I do not agree with them.*

tempestati obsequi artis est (Fam. i. 9), *it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.*

omnibus negotiis nōn interfuit solum sed praefuit (id. i. 6), *he not only had a hand in all matters, but took the lead in them.*

quantum natura hominis pecudibus antecedit (Of. i. 105), *so far as man's nature is superior to brutes.*

nec unquam succumbet inimicis (Dei. 36), *he will never yield to his foes.*

illis libellis nomen suum inscribunt (Arch. 26), *they put their own name to those papers.*

cūr mihi te offers, ac meis commodis officiis et obstas (Rosc. A. 112), *why do you offer yourself to me, and then hinder and withstand my advantage?*

NOTE 1. — In these cases the dative depends not on the preposition, but on the compound verb in its acquired meaning. Hence if the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object, the original construction of the simple verb remains or some different construction arises. Thus in convocat sub, *he calls his men together*, the idea of calling is not so modified as to make an indirect object appropriate. So hominem interficere, *to make away with a man* (kill him). But in praeficere imperatorem bello, *to put a man in command-in-chief in charge of a war*, the idea resulting from the composition is suited to an indirect object (see also § 227. c, and § 237. d).

NOTE 2. — Some of these verbs being originally transitive take also a direct object: as, *nō offerāmus nōs periculis* (Off. i. 83), *that we may not expose ourselves to perils.*

NOTE 3. — The construction of § 228 is not different in its nature from that of §§ 225 and 226; but the compound verbs make a convenient group.

a. Some compounds of *ad*, *ante*, *ob*, with a few others, have acquired a transitive meaning, and take the accusative (cf. § 237. d):¹ as, —

nōs oppūgnat (Fam. i. 1), *he opposes us.*

quis audeat bene comitātum aggredi (Phil. xii. 25), *who would dare encounter a man well attended?*

mūnus obīre (Lael. 7), *to attend to a duty.*

b. The adjective *obvius* and the adverb *obviam* with a verb take the dative: as, —

ille obvius eī futūrus nōn erat (Mil. 47), *if he was not intending to get in his way.*

mihi obviam vēnistī (Fam. ii. 16), *you came to meet me.*

c. When *place* or *motion* is distinctly thought of, the verbs mentioned in § 228 regularly take a noun with a preposition, instead of the dative: as,

in visceribus inhaerere (Tuscul. iv. 24), *it remains fixed in the vitals.*

homini coniūctō mēcum (Tullius 4), *to a man united to me.*

convenit mihi cum adversariō (Tullius 23), *my adversary and I agree* agrees to me with my adversary).

cum hōc concurrat ipse Eumenēs (Nep. Eum. 4, 1), *with him Eumenes himself engages in combat* (runs together).

quae ā ceterarū gentium mōre dissentiunt (Fonteius 30), *which differ from the custom of all other nations.*

inserite oculōs in cūriam (Fonteius 43), *fix your eyes on the senate-house.*

ignis qui est ob ōs offūsus (Univ. 49), *the fire which is diffused before the sight.*

obicitur contrā istōrum impetū Macedonia (Fonteius 44), *Macedonia is set to withstand their attacks.* [Cf. *si quis vōbis error obiectus* (Caec. 5), *if any mistake has been caused you.*

sē iniectūrōs vōbis causam deliberandī (Caecina 4), *that they would give you occasion for considering.]*

in segetem flamma incidit (Æn. ii. 304), *the fire falls upon the standing corn.*

NOTE. — But the usage varies in different authors, in different words, and often in the same word in the same sense. The dictionary must be consulted for each verb.

229. Many verbs of *taking away*² and the like take the Dative (especially of a *person*) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 243):³ as, —

¹ Such verbs are *aggredior*, *adeō*, *anteōdō*, *anteō*, *antegredior*, *conveniō*, *ineō*, *obeō*, *offendō*, *oppūgnō*, *subeō*, *praeōdō*.

² The dative in these constructions represents the action as *done to* the object, and is thus more vivid than the ablative.

³ Such verbs are compounds of *ab*, *dē*, *ex*, and a few of *ad*.

mulierī anulū dētrāxit, he took a ring from the woman.

bona mihi abstulisti, you have robbed me of my gains.

vītam adulēscētibz vis aufert (C. M. 71), violence deprives young men of life.

nihil enim tibi dētrāxit senectūs (Fam. i. 5, b), for age has robbed you, etc.

nec mihi hunc errōrem extorqueri volō (C. M. 85), nor do I wish this error wrested from me.

a. The distinct idea of *motion*, — and, in general, names of *things*, — require the ablative with a preposition (§ 258. *a*): as, —

illum ex periculō ēripuit (B. G. iv. 12), he dragged him out of danger.

b. Sometimes the dative of the person and the ablative of the thing with a preposition are both used with the same verb: as, —

victōriam ēripi sibi ē manibus, that victory should be wrested from his hands (cf. § 243. b).

c. The dative is often used by the poets in constructions which would in prose require a noun with a preposition. So especially with verbs of *contending* (§ 248. *b*): as, —

contendis Homērō (Prop. i. 7, 3), you vie with Homer. [In prose: cum Homērō.]

placitōne etiā pūgnābis amōrī (Æn. iv. 38), will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?

tibi certat (Ecl. v. 8), vies with you. [tēcum.]

differt sermōnī (Hor. S. i. 4. 48), differs from prose. [ā sermōne, § 243.]

sōlstitium pecorī dēfendite (Ecl. vii. 47), keep the noontide heat from the flock. [ā pecore.]

laterī abdidit ēnsem (Æn. ii. 553), buried the sword in his side. [in latere, § 260. a.]

[For the Dative instead of *ad* with the Accusative, see § 225. *b. 3*.]

230. The passive of intransitive verbs that govern the dative can be used only *impersonally* (§ 146. *d*). Such verbs retain the dative in this use (cf. § 225. *e*).

cui parci potuit (Liv. xxi. 12), who could be spared?

nōn modo nōn invidētur illi aetātī vērūm etiā favētur (Off. ii. 45), that age (youth) is not only not envied, but is even favored.

temporī serviendum est (Fam. ix. 7), we must serve the exigency of the occasion (the time).

5. Dative of Possession.

231. The Dative is used with *esse* and similar words to denote Possession: as, —

homini cum deo similitudine est (Cic.), *man has a likeness to God* (there is to man, etc.).

quibus opes nullae sunt (Sall. Cat. 37), [those] *who have no wealth*.
est mihi domi pater (Ecl. iii. 33), *I have a father at home*.

REMARK. — The Genitive or a Possessive with *esse* emphasizes the *possessor*; the Dative, the fact of *possession*: as, *liber est meus*, *the book is mine* (and no one's else); *est mihi liber*, *I have a book* (among other things). The latter is the usual form to denote simple *possession*, since *habere*, *have*, generally signifies *hold*, often with some secondary meaning: as, —

legionem quam secum habebat (B. G. i. 8), *the legion which he kept with him*.

domitas habere libidines (De Or.), *to keep the passions under control*.

a. Compounds of *esse* take the dative (except *abesse* and *posse*):
as, —

deest mihi pecunia, *I lack money*.

quid mihi prouderit? *in what will it help me* (what will it profit me)?

b. After *nomen est*, and similar expressions, the name is usually put in the dative by a kind of apposition with the *person*: as, —

cui Africāno fuit cognomen (Liv. xxv. 2), *whose (to whom) surname was Africanus*.

puero ab inopia Egerio inditum nomen (Liv. i. 34), *the name Egerius was given the boy from his poverty*.

c. The name may also be in apposition with *nomen*; or in later Latin in the genitive (cf. § 214. f): as, —

cui nomen Arethūsa (Ver. iv. 118), [a fountain] *called Arethusa* (to which is the name Arethusa).

puero nomen est Mārcus (Mārci), *the boy's name is Marcus* (to the boy, etc.).

Q. Metellō Macedonicī nomen inditum est (Vel. Pat. i. 11), *to Q. Metellus the name of Macedonicus was given*.

6. Dative of the Agent.

232. The Dative of the Agent is used with the gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests:
as, —

haec vobis provincia est defendenda (Man. 14), *this province is for you to defend* (to be defended by you).

mihi est pugnandum, *I have to fight* (i.e. the need of fighting is to me; compare *mihi est liber*, *I have a book*, § 231. Rem.).

NOTE. — This is the regular way of expressing the *agent* with the Second or Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (§ 113. d. 1). But when a dative is expressed governed by the verb itself, and rarely at other times, the agent is denoted by the Ablative with *ab* (§ 246) to avoid ambiguity: as, —

quibus est $\bar{\epsilon}$ vōbīs cōsulendum (Leg. Man. 6), *for whom you must consult* (for whom it must be consulted by you).

rem ab omnibus vōbīs prōvidendam (Rabir. 4), *that the matter must be attended to by all of you.*

(Cf. isti principēs et sibi et cēteris populi Rōmānī ūniversī auctōritātī pārendum esse fateantur (Leg. Man. 64), *let these leading men admit that both by them and by everybody else the authority of the Roman people as a whole must be obeyed.* [Here there was no danger of ambiguity.]

a. The dative of the agent is common after *perfect participles* (especially when used in an adjective sense), but rare after other parts of the verb : as, —

mihi dēliberātum et cōstitūtum est (Leg. Ag. i. 25), *I have deliberated and resolved* (it has been deliberated by me).

mihi rēs tōta prōvisa est (Verres iv. 91), *the matter has been fully provided for by me.*

sic dissimillimis bestolis cōmūniter ihus quaeritur (N. D. ii. 123), *so by very different creatures food is sought in common.*

b. The dative of the agent is used by the poets and later writers after almost any passive verb : as, —

neque cernitur ūllī (Æn. i. 440), *nor is seen by any.*

fēlix est dicta sorōrī (Ov. Fast. iii.), *she was called happy by her sister.*

c. The dative of the person who *sees* or *thinks* is regularly used after *videor*, *seem* : as, —

vidētur mihi, *it seems (or seems good) to me.*

dis aliter visum [est] (Æn. ii. 428), *it seemed otherwise to the gods.*

videor mihi perspicere ipsius animū (Fam. iv. 13), *I seem (to myself) to see the soul of the man himself.*

NOTE. — The verb *probāre*, *approve* (originally a mercantile word), takes a Dative of Reference (§ 235), which has become so firmly attached that it is retained with the passive, seemingly as Dative of Agent : as, —

haec sententia et illī et nōbīs probābātur (Fam. i. 7, 5), *this view met both his approval and mine* (was made acceptable both to him and to me)

mihi ēgregiē probāta est ōratiō tua (Tuscul. iv. 8), *your discourse was very satisfactory to me.*

7. Dative of the Purpose or End.

233. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End.

This construction, once apparently general in its use, remains in only a few constructions. Thus —

a. The dative of an abstract noun is used to show that *for which a thing serves* or *which it accomplishes* (Dative of Service), often with another dative of the person or thing affected: ¹ *as*, —

rei publicae clādī sunt (Jug. 85), *they are ruin to the State* (for a disaster).
māgnō ūsui nostris fuit (B. G. iv. 25), *it was of great service to our men*
 (for great use).

tertiam aciem nostris subsidiō misit (id. l. 52), *he sent the third line as a relief to our men.*

omnia deerant quae ad reficiendās nāvēs erant ūsui (id. iv. 29), *all things were wanting which were of use for repairing the ships.*

ēvenit facile quod dis cordī esset (Liv. i. 39), *that came to pass easily which was desired by the gods* (was for a pleasure [lit. heart] to the gods).

NOTE. — The word *frūgī* used as an adjective is a dative of this kind *as*, —

cōgis mē dicere inimicum frūgī (Cic.), *you compel me to call my enemy honest.*
homines satis fortēs et planē frūgī (Verr. iii. 67), *men brave enough and thoroughly honest.*

(*Cf. erō frūgī bonae* (Plaut. Pseud. 468), *I will be good for something.*)

b. The Dative of Purpose of concrete nouns is used in prose in a few military expressions, and with freedom in poetry: *as*, —

receptūl canere, *to sound a retreat.*

locum castris capere, *to select a site for a camp.*

optāvit locum rēgnō (Æn. iii. 109), *he chose a place for a kingdom.*

NOTE. — The construction of purpose or end is found in the dative of the Gerundive (§ 229. b) and after Adjectives (§ 234).

8. Dative with Adjectives.

234. The dative is used after adjectives or adverbs, to denote that *to which the given quality is directed*, *for which it exists*, or *towards which it tends*.

¹ The following characteristics have been observed in the use of the Predicate Dative (dative of Service): 1. the noun is semi-abstract; 2. it is so used only in the singular; 3. it is "used predicatively"; 4. generally with *esse*; 5. rarely qualified by an adjective, 6. or by a genitive or a phrase; 7. but few nouns are used in this way; 8. the use and its limitations appear to be governed by custom, not by any principle. It is common with about 40 nouns, and is found with 185 in all. Of these *dōnō*, *mūneri*, *vitio*, are not used with *esse*. The verbs with which it exists are *habēō*, *dō*, *dico*, *dūcō*, *pōnō*, *vertō*, with *esse* and its equivalents, as *feri*, etc. The nouns most commonly found in this construction are, *adīfumentō*, *auxiliō*, *cordi*, *crimini*, *cūrae*, *damnō*, *decori*, *dēdecori*, *dōnō*, *exemplō*, *exitio*, *fraudi* (*damage*), *honōri*, *indiciō*, *invidiae*, *impedimentō*, *laudī*, *iudiciō*, *malō*, *morae*, *odiō*, *oneri*, *ornāmentō*, *praedae*, *praesidiō*, *probrō*, *puđōri*, *receptūl*, *remediō*, *salutī*, *subsidiō*, *terrōri*, *vitio*, *voluptati*, *ausi*. — Roby's Latin Grammar, II. xxxvii. seq.

a. The dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of *fitness, nearness, likeness, service, inclination*, and their opposites: as, —

nihil est tam *nātūræ* aptum (Lael. 17), *nothing is so fitted to nature.*

nihil difficile *amanti* putō (Or. 33), *I think nothing hard to a lover.*

pompæ quam *pūgnæ* aptius (id. 42), *fitter for a procession than for battle.*

rēbus ipsīs pār et æquālis *ōrātiō* (id. 123), *a speech equal and level with the subject.*

castris *idōneum* locum dēligit (B. G. i. 49), *a suitable place for a camp.*

tribūnī nōbis sunt amīcī (Q. Fr. i. 2), *the tribunes are friendly to us.*

cupidīs rērum tālium odiōsum fortasse et molestum est carēre (Cat. Major 47), *to those who are desirous of such things, it is perhaps hateful and disagreeable to do without them.*

nec eum . . . aut *invisum* deō aut neglēctum ā deō iūdicēmus (Nat. D. ii. 167), *and let us not deem him either hateful to God or disregarded by God.*

esse propitius potest *nēmīnī* (Nat. D. i. 124), *he can be gracious to nobody.*

est hominū generī prosperus et salūtāris ille fulgor (Repub. vi. 17), *that radiance is favorable and beneficial to the race of men.*

cēteræ rēs quæ expetuntur opportūnæ sunt singulæ *rēbus* singulis (Lael. 22), *all other things that are sought after are suitable each to some particular thing.*

māgnīs autem virīs prosperæ semper omnēs rēs (Nat. D. ii. 167), *but to great men everything is always favorable.*

sēdēs huic nostrō nōn importūna *sermōnī* (De Orat. iii. 18), *a place not unsuitable for this conversation of ours.*

adversissimī *nāvigantibus* ventī (li. C. iii. 107), *winds most adverse for those who sail.*

sed nōn quicquid tibi audīre ūtile est, id mihi dicere necesse est (Offic. iii. 52), *but not everything that is useful for you to hear is necessary for me to say.*

cui *fundō* erat affinis M. Tullius (Tullius 14), *to which estate M. Tullius was next neighbor.*

convenienter *nātūræ* vivere (Offic. iii. 13), *to live in accordance with nature* (ὁμολογουμένως τῇ φύσει).

congruenter *nātūræ* (Finib. iii. 26), *in harmony with nature.*

NOTE 1. — So, also, in poetic and colloquial use, with *idem*: as, —

invitum quī servat *idem* facit occidentī (Hor. Ars. P. 467), *he who saves a man against his will does the same as one who kills him.*

NOTE 2. — Adjectives of *likeness* are often followed by *atque* (ἔκ), *as*. So also the adverbs *æquē, pariter, similiter*, etc. The pronoun *idem* has regularly *atque* or a relative. Thus, —

sī *parem* sententiam hīc habet *ἔκ* formam (Plaut. Mil. 1251) *if he has sense equal to his beauty* (like as his beauty).

tē suspicor *eisdem* *rēbus* quibus mē ipsum commovērī (Cato Maj. 1), *I suspect you are disturbed by the same things by which I am.*

b. Adjectives of *fitness* or *use* take oftener the Accusative with *ad* to denote the purpose or end; but regularly the Dative of *persons*: as, —

aptus ad rem militārem, *fit for a soldier's duty*.

locus ad insidiās aptior (Mil. 53), *a place fitter for lying in wait*.

nōbīs ūtile est ad hanc rem, *it is of use to us for this thing*.

c. Adjectives and nouns of *inclination* and the like may take the Accusative with *in* or *ergā*: as, —

cōmis in uxōrem (Hor. Ep. ii. 2), *kind to his wife*.

divina bonitās ergā hominēs (N. D. ii. 60), *the divine goodness towards men*.

dē benevolentiā quam quisque habeat ergā nōs (Offic. i. 47), *in regard to each man's good will which he has towards us*.

grātiōrem mē esse in tē (Fam. xi. 10), *that I am more grateful to you*.

d. Some adjectives of *likeness*, *nearness*, *belonging*, and a few others, ordinarily requiring the Dative, often take the Possessive Genitive.¹ Thus, —

quod ut illi proprium ac perpetuum sit . . . optāre dēbētis (Leg. Man. 48), *which you ought to pray may be secure (his own) and lasting to him*.

fuit hōc quondam proprium populī Rōmānī (Manil. 32), *this was once the peculiar characteristic of the Roman people*.

id quod reō māximē necessariū est (Cæcil. 38), *a thing which is especially necessary for the defendant*.

cum utriq̄e sis māximē necessariū (Att. ix. 7, A), *since you are especially bound to both*.

prōcūrator aequē utriusque necessariū (Quinctius 86), *an agent equally closely connected with both*.

NOTE. — The genitive in this construction is not objective like those above, but possessive (cf. § 214. a).

1. The Genitive is especially used with these adjectives when they are used wholly or approximately as nouns. Thus, —

amicus Cicerōnī, *friendly to Cicero*. But, *Cicerōnis amicus*, *a friend of Cicero*; and even, *Cicerōnis amicissimus*, *a very great friend of Cicero*. *Crēticus et eius aequalis Pacōn* (Orat. 215), *the Cretic and its equivalent the Pacon*.

hī erant affīnēs istius (Verr. ii. 36), *these were this man's fellows*.

2. After *similis*, *like*, the genitive is more common in early writers. Cicero uses the genitive of *living objects*, and either the genitive or dative of *things*: as, —

domini similis es (Ter.) *you're like your master* (your master's like).

¹ Such are *aequalis*, *affinis*, *amicus*, *cognātus*, *communis*, *cōsanguineus*, *dispar*, *familiaris*, *inimicus*, *inimicus*, *necessarius*, *pār*, *peculiaris*, *propinquus*, *proprius* (regularly genitive), *similis*, *superstes*, *vicinus*, *alienus*, *contrarius*, *sacer*.

ut deōrum similēs essēmus (Nat. D. i. 91), *that we might be like the gods.*
simia quam similis turpissima bestia nobis (Nat. D. i. 97, quoted from

Enn.), *how like us is that wretched beast the ape!*

sī enim hōc illi simile sit, est illud huic (Nat. D. i. 90), *for if this is like that, that is like this.*

filius patri similis (Finib. v. 12), *a son like his father.*

est similis māiōrum suōm (Ter. Ad. 411), *he's like his ancestors.*

c. The adjectives **propior**, **proximus** sometimes, and the adverbs **propius**, **proximē** more commonly, take the accusative, as if prepositions, like **prope** (see § 261. a).

propius periculum (Liv. xxi. 1), *nearer to danger*

proximē deōs accessit Clōdus (Milon. 59), *Clodius has come very near the gods.*

proximus Pompēium sedēbam (Cic.), *I was sitting next to Pompey.*

proximū mare oceanum (B. G. iii. 7), *nearest the ocean.*

NOTE.—These words take also the ablative with **ab**¹ (cf. § 260. b).

9. Dative of Reference.

235. The Dative is often required not by any *particular word*, but by the *general meaning* of the sentence: as,—

tibi arās (Pl. Merc. 71), *you plough for yourself.*

rēs tuās tibi habē (formula of divorce), *keep your goods to yourself.*

laudāvit mihi frātre, *he praised my brother* (out of regard for me; *laudāvit frātre* meum would imply no such motive).

meritōs mactāvit honōrēs, taurum Neptūnō, taurum tibi, pulcher Apollō (Æn. iii. 118), *he offered the sacrifices due, a bull to Neptune, a bull to thee, beautiful Apollo.*

Cūriōnī nostrō tribūnātus congelat (Fam. viii. 6), *our friend Curio's tribuneship is frozen up* (the tribuneship is frozen up for Curio).

NOTE.—The dative in this construction is often called the Dative of Advantage or Disadvantage (*dativus commodi aut incommodi*), as denoting the person or thing for whose benefit or to whose prejudice the action is performed. The meaning of the sentence is complete without the dative, which is not, as in the preceding constructions, closely connected with any single word. Thus the Dative of Reference is easily distinguishable in most instances even when the sentence consists of only two words, as in the first example.

a. The Dative of Reference is often used to qualify a whole idea, instead of the Possessive Genitive modifying a single word: as,—

iter Poenīs vel corporibus suis obstruere (Cat. Maj. 75), *to block the march of the Carthaginians even with their own bodies* (to block, etc., for the disadvantage of, etc.).

sē in conspectu nautis dedit (Verr. v. 86), *he put himself in sight of the sailors* (he put himself to the sailors into sight).

¹ This comes from their original meaning of *off*, as we say *off Newport*.

versatur mihi ante oculos (id. 123), *it comes before my eyes* (it comes to me before the eyes).

b. The dative is used of the person from whose point of view a situation or direction is defined.

This construction answers to the English *as you go in*, and the like. The person is commonly denoted indefinitely by a participle in the plural: as, —

oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpirō (B. C. iii. 80), *the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus* (to those coming, etc.).

laevā parte sinum intrantibus (Liv. xxvi. 26), *on the left as you sail up the gulf* (to those entering).

est urbe ēgressis tumulus (Æn. ii. 713), *there is, as you come out of the city, a mound* (to those having come out).

c. The dative of reference is (by a Greek idiom) rarely modified by *nōlēns*, *volēns*, participles of *nōlō*, *volō*, or by some similar word: as,

ut quibusque bellum invitis aut cupientibus erat (Tac. An. i. 59), *as each might receive the war reluctantly or gladly*

ut militibus labōs volentibus esset (Jug. 100), *that the soldiers might assume the task willingly*.

d. The dative of reference is used idiomatically without any verb in colloquial questions and exclamations: as, —

quō mihi fortunam (Hor. Ep. i. 5. 12), *of what use to me is fortune?*

unde mihi lapidem (Hor. Sat. ii. 7. 116), *where can I get a stone?*

quō tibi, Tili (Hor. Sat. i. 6. 24), *what use for you, Tilius?*

e. The dative of reference is sometimes used after Interjections: as, —

vae victis, *woe to the conquered*.

em tibi, *there, take that* (there, for you)! [Cf. § 236.]

hei mihi, *ah, me!*

10. Ethical Dative.

236. The Dative of the Personal Pronouns is used to show a certain interest felt by the person indicated: ¹ as, —

quid mihi Celsus agit (Hor.), *pray what is Celsus doing?*

suō sibi servit patri (Plaut. Capt. Prol.), *he serves his own father*.

at tibi repente venit mihi Cōminius (Fam. ix. 2), *but, look you, of a sudden comes to me Cōminius*.

hem tibi talentum argenti (Pl. Truc. 60), *hark ye, a talent of silver*.

quid tibi vis, *what would you have* (what do you wish for yourself)?

This construction is called the Ethical Dative (*dativus ethicus*). It is really only a special case of the dative of reference.

¹ Compare "I'll rhyme you so eight years together," — *As You Like It*.

REMARK. — To express FOR — meaning *instead of, in defence of, in behalf of* — the ablative with *pro* must be used: as, —

pro patriâ mori (Hor. Od. iii. 2), *to die for one's country.*

pro rege, lege, grege (prov.), *for king, law, people.*

ego ibo pro te (Plaut. Most.), *I will go instead of you.*

III. — ACCUSATIVE.

NOTE. — The Accusative originally served to connect the noun loosely with the verb-idea, whether expressed by a verb proper or by a verbal noun or adjective. Probably its earliest use was to repeat the verb-idea as in the Cognate Accusative (*run a race, fight a battle*, see § 238). From this it would be a short step to the Facitative Accusative (denoting the result of an act, as in *make a table, drill a hole*, cf. § 175, note 1). From this last could easily come the common accusative (of Affecting, *break a table, plug a hole*, see § 237). Traces of all these uses appear in the language, and the loose connection of noun with verb-idea is seen in the use of stems in composition¹ (cf. p. 205, head-note).

The uses of the accusative may be classified as follows:

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
| 1. PRIMARY OBJECT: | { 1. Directly affected by the Action (§ 237).
{ 2. Effect of the Action { Thing produced (§ 237).
Cognate Accusative (§ 238). |
| 2. TWO ACCUSATIVES: | { 1. Predicate Accusative (of Naming, etc.) (§ 239. a).
{ 2. Of Asking or Teaching (§ 239. c).
{ 3. Of Concealing (§ 239. d). |
| 3. IDIOMATIC USES: | { 1. Adverbial (§ 240. a, b).
{ 2. Of Specification (Greek Accusative) (§ 240. c).
{ 3. Of Extent and Duration (§ 240. e).
{ 4. Of Exclamation (§ 240. d).
{ 5. Subject of Infinitive (§ 240. f). |

1. Direct Object.

237. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the Accusative (§ 177).

The accusative of the Direct Object denotes (a) that which is *directly affected*, or (b) that which is *caused* or *produced* by the action of the verb: as, —

(a) *Brûtus Caesarem interfecit.* *Brutus killed Caesar.*

(b) *aedem facere, to make a temple.* [Compare *proelium pugnare, to fight a battle*, § 238].

NOTE. — There is no definite line by which transitive verbs can be distinguished from intransitive. Verbs which usually take a direct object (expressed or implied) are called transitive, but many of these are often used *intransitively* or *absolutely*.

¹ Compare *armiger, armor-bearer*, with *arma gerere, to bear arms*; *fidi-oen, lyre-player*, with *fidi-bus canere, to (play on) sing to the lyre*. Compare also *hanc tactio* (Plaut.), *the [act of] touching her*, with *hanc tangere, to touch her*.

Thus *timeō*, *I fear*, is transitive in the sentence *inimicum timeō*, *I fear my enemy*, but intransitive (*absolute*) in *nōlī timēre*, *don't be afraid*. Again, many verbs are transitive in one sense and intransitive in another: as, *Helvētiōs superāvērunt Rōmānī*, *the Romans overcame the Helvetians*; but *nihil superēbat*, *nothing remained* (was left over). So also many verbs usually intransitive may be used transitively with a slight change in their meaning: as, *ridēs*, *you are laughing*; but *mē ridēs*, *you're laughing at me*.

a. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative (§ 177. a): as, —

Brūtus Caesarem interfēcit, *Brutus killed Caesar*.

Caesar ā Brūtō interfectus est, *Caesar was killed by Brutus*.

domum aedificat, *he builds a house*.

domus aedificātur, *the house is building* (being built).

b. Many verbs apparently intransitive, expressing *feeling*, take an accusative, and may be used in the passive: as, —

meum cōsum luctumque doluerunt (Ses. 145), *they grieved [at] my calamity and sorrow*.

si nōn Acrisium risissent Iuppiter et Venus (Hor. O. iii. 16. 5), *if Jupiter and Venus had not laughed [at] Acrisius*.

ridetur ab omni conventū (Hor. S. i. 7. 22), *he is laughed [at] by the whole assembly*.

c. Verbs of *taste*, *smell*, and the like take an accusative of the quality: as, —

vinum redolēs (Cic.), *smelling [of] wine*.

herbam mella sapiunt (Plin.), *the honey tastes [of] grass*.

NOTE. — These are properly Cognate Accusatives (§ 238).

d. Verbs of motion, compounds of *circum* and *trans*, and a few others, frequently become transitive, and take the accusative (cf. § 228. a): as,

mortem obire, *to die* (to meet death).

consulātum ineunt (Liv. ii. 28), *they enter upon the consulship*.

nēmīnem convēnī (Fam. ix. 14), *I met no one*.

si insulam adisset (B. G. iv. 20), *if he should go to the island*.

transire flūmen (id. ii. 23), *to cross the river* (cf. § 239. b).

civēs quī circumstant senātum (Cat. i. 21), *the citizens who stand about the senate*.

e. The accusative is used after the impersonals *deceat*, *dēlectat*, *juvat*, *oportet*, *fallit*, *fugit*, *praeterit*: as, —

tū nōn praeterit (Fam. i. 8), *it does not escape your notice*.

ita ut vōs deceat (Plaut. Most. 729), *so as befits you*.

mē pedibus dēlectat claudere verba (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 28), *my delight is (it pleases me) to arrange words in measure*.

nec mē animi fallit (Lucr. i. 136), *nor does it escape my attention* (elude me in mind).

nisi mē fallit, *unless I am mistaken (unless it deceives me).*

iūvit mē tibi tuās litterās prōfuisse (Fam. v. 21), *it pleased me that your literary studies had profited you.*

So after *latet* in poetry and post-classical prose: as, —

latet plērōsque (Plin. ii. 82), *it is unknown to most persons.*

NOTE 1. — These verbs are merely ordinary transitives with an idiomatic signification. Hence most of them are also used personally (cf. §§ 227. a, 239. d).

NOTE 2. — *Decet* and *latet* sometimes take the dative: as, —

hostīque propinquō Rōma latet (Sil. It. xii. 614), *and Rome lies hidden from the foe close by.*

ita nobīs decet (Ter. Ad. 928), *thus it befits us.*

NOTE 3. — Many verbs usually intransitive are sometimes used transitively from a similarity of meaning with other verbs that regularly take the accusative: as, —

multa gemēs ignōminiam (Georg. iii. 226), *groaning much at the disgrace.* [Cf. *doleō*, § 237. b.]

festināre fugam (Æn. iv. 575), *to hasten their flight.* [Cf. *accelerō*.]

comptōs ārsit crinēs (Hor. Od. iv. 9. 13), *she burned with love for his well-combed locks.* [Cf. *adamō*.]

f. In early and popular usage some nouns and adjectives derived from transitive verbs retain verbal force sufficient to govern the accusative: as, —

quid tibi hanc tāctiō est (Plaut. Poen. 1308), *what business have you to touch her?* [Cf. *tangō*.]

mirābundi bestiam (Ap. Met. 4. 16), *full of wonder at the creature.* [Cf. *mīror*.]

vitābundus castra (Liv. xxv. 13), *trying to avoid the camp.* [Cf. *vitō*.]

g. In early usage the impersonal gerundive with *esse* governs the accusative (§ 294. c): as, —

quam nobīs ingrediendum sit (Cat. Major 6), *which (road) we must enter upon.* [Here Cicero purposely uses an archaic construction.]

poenās in morte timendumst (Lucr. i. 111), *we have to fear punishment in death.*

h. Many verbs ordinarily transitive may be used *absolutely* (p. 234, note), having their natural object in the ablative with *dē*: as, —

priusquam Pompōnius dē eius adventū cōgnōsceret (B. C. iii. 101), *before Pomponius could learn of his coming.* [Cf. *ēius adventū cōgnitō*, *his arrival being discovered*.]

i. For Accusative and Genitive after Impersonals, see § 221. b.

2. Cognate Accusative.

238. A neuter verb often takes the accusative of a noun of kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or in some other manner.

This construction is called the *Cognate Accusative* or *Accusative of Kindred Signification*. Thus, —

vitam tūtiorē vivere (Hor.), *to live a safer life*.

tertiam iam aetatem hominū vivēbat (Cato M. 31), *he was now living the third generation of men*.

coire societatem, *to [go together and] form an alliance*.

servitūtem servire, *to be in slavery*.

a. The Cognate Accusative is often loosely used by the poets: as, —

huic errori similem [errorem] insānire (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 62), *to suffer a delusion like this*.

saltāre Cyclōpa (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 63), *to dance the Cyclops* (represent in dancing).

Bacchānalia vivere (Juv. ii. 3), *to live in revellings*.

Amaryllida resonāre (Ecl. i. 5), *to re-echo* [the name of] *Amaryllis*.

intonuit laevum (En. ii. 693), *it thundered on the left*.

dulce ridentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 23), *sweetly smiling*.

acerba tuens (Lucr. v. 34), *looking fiercely*. [Cf. Eng. "to look daggers."]

NOTE. — In the last three examples the cognate accusative has an *adverbial* signification. See Adverbial Accusative, § 240. *a*.

b. A neuter pronoun or colorless noun or adjective is very common as cognate accusative (cf. §§ 148. *d* and 240. *a*). Thus, —

Empedoclēs multa alia peccat (Nat. D. i. 29), *Empedocles commits many other slips*.

ego illud assentior Theophrastō (De Or. 184), *in this I agree with Theophrastus*.

multum tē opiniō iste fefellit (Ver. ii. i. 88), *you were much deceived in this expectation* (this expectation deceived you much).

quid mē ista laedunt (Agr. ii. 32), *what harm do those things do me?*

sī ūrēdō aut grandō quippiam nocuit (N. D. iii. 86), *if drought or hail has done any injury* (has harmed at all).

hōc tē moneō, *I give you this warning* (cf. note below).

id laetor, *I rejoice at this* (cf. note).

quae hominēs arant, nāvigant, etc. (Sall. Cat. 2, 7), *what men do in ploughing, sailing, etc.*

So in many common phrases: as, —

quid ille cū velit (B. G. i. 34), *if he should want anything of him* (if he should want him in anything).

numquid mē vis, can I do anything more for you? (there is nothing you want of me, is there?). [A common form of leave-taking.]

quid est quod, etc., why is it that, etc.?

So, — *hoc erat quod* (*Æn.* ii. 664), *was it for this that, etc.?*

NOTE. — In these cases substantives with a definite meaning would be in some other construction: as, —

in hōc eōdem peccat, he errs in this same point.

bonis rēbus laetāri, to rejoice at prosperity. [Also: *in, dē, or ex.*]

dē testāmētō monēre, to remind one of the will. [Later: genitive, § 219. c.]

officiū admonēre, to remind one of his duty. [Also: *dē officiō.*]

c. A few verbs in isolated expressions take the accusative from a forcing of their meaning. Such expressions are: —

ferire foedus, to strike a treaty (i.e. to sanction by striking down a victim).

vincere iūdicium (spōnsiōnem, rem, hōc), *to prevail on a trial, etc.* [As

if the case were a difficulty to overcome; cf. *vincere iter*, *Æn.* vi. 688.]

terram nāvigāre (*Finib.* ii. 112), *to sail over the land.* [Perhaps quoted from a poet.]

aequor nāvigāre, to sail the sea. [As if it were *trānsire*, § 237. d.]

maria aspera iūrō (*Æn.* vi. 351), *I swear by the rough seas.* [The accusative with verbs of swearing is chiefly poetic.]

noctēs dormire, to sleep [whole] *nights* (to spend in sleep).

NOTE. — These accusatives are of various kinds. The last example approaches the cognate construction, cf. the second example under § 238.

3. Two Accusatives.

239. Some transitive verbs take a second accusative in addition to their Direct Object.

This second accusative is either (1) a Predicate Accusative or (2) a Secondary Object.

a. Predicate Accusative.

1. An accusative in the Predicate referring to the same person or thing as the Direct Object, but not in apposition with it, is called a Predicate Accusative (cf. § 185, head-note).

a. Verbs of *naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing,* and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object: as, —

Ō Spartace, quem enim tē potius appellem (*Phil.* xiii. 22), *O Spartacus, for what else shall I call you* (than Spartacus)?

Cicerōnem cōsulem creāre, to elect Cicero consul.

dictātōrem dicere, to name [a man] *dictator* (e.g. *Quintus Fabius*).

mē augurem nōmināverunt (Philip. ii. 4), *they nominated me for augur*
grātias agēbat quod sē cōsulem fēcisset (Cic.), *he thanked him because he*
had made him consul (supported his candidacy).

hominem prae sē nēmīnem putāvit (Cic.), *he thought nobody a man in com-*
parison with himself.

ducem sē militibus tuis praebuit (Vat. 33), *he offered himself to your*
soldiers as a leader.

omnēs Catilinās Acidinōs postea reddidit (Att. iv. 3), *he has made all the*
Catilines [seem] Acidini.

NOTE 1.—The predicate accusative may be an adjective: as,—

hominēs ex feris et immānibus mitēs reddidit et mānsuētōs (Inv. 1, 2), *has*
made men from wild and barbarous [creatures] gentle and mild.

NOTE 2.—In changing from the active voice to the passive, the predicate
accusative becomes predicate nominative (§ 185): as,—

rēx ab suis appellātur (B. G. vii. 4), *he is called king by his [subjects].*

b. Secondary Object.

2. The Accusative of the Secondary Object is used
(along with the direct object) to denote something more
remotely affected by the action of the verb.

δ. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take
(in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally gov-
erned by the preposition: as,—

Caesar Germanōs flūmen trācit (B. C. i. 83), *Caesar throws the Germans*
across the river.

NOTE 1.—But with these verbs the preposition is more commonly repeated,
or sometimes the ablative is used: as,—

dōnec res suas trāns Halyn flūmen trācerent (Liv. xxxviii. 25), *till they*
should get their possessions across the river Halys.

(exercitus) Padō trāiectus Cremonam (Liv. xxi. 56), *the army was conveyed*
across the Po to Cremona (by way of the Po, § 258. g).

NOTE 2.—The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb: as,—

Belgae Rhēnum trāducti sunt (B. G. ii. 4), *the Belgians were led over*
the Rhine.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes the Secondary Object appears to become the subject of a
passive verb; but this comes from a change of meaning, and the object is really
Direct. See the Remark.

REMARK.—The double construction indicated in δ is possible only when the
force of the preposition and the force of the verb are each distinctly felt in the
compound, the verb governing the Direct, and the preposition the Secondary

But often the two parts of the compound become closely united to form a transitive verb of simple meaning. In this case the verb-element loses its power to govern the accusative, and the compound verb is transitive solely by virtue of its prepositional part. Thus used the compound can have but one accusative, — the same which was formerly the secondary object, but which now becomes the direct. So *trāiciō* comes to mean either (1) *to pierce* (anybody) [by hurling] or (2) *to cross* (a river, etc.): as, —

- (1) *gladiō hominem trāiecit*, *he pierced the man with a sword*. [Here *iaciō* has lost all transitive force, and serves simply to give the force of a verb to the meaning of *trāns*, and to tell the *manner* of the act.]
 (2) *Rhodanum trāiecit*, *he crossed the Rhone*. [Here *iaciō* has become simply a verb of motion, and *trāiciō* is hardly distinguishable from *trānseō*.]

In these examples *hominem* and *Rhodanum*, which would be secondary objects if *trāiecit* were used in its primary signification, have become the direct objects. Hence in the passive construction they become the subjects and are put in the nominative. Thus, —

homō trāiectus est gladiō, *the man was pierced with a sword*.

Rhodanus trāiectus est, *the Rhone was crossed*.

The poetical *trāiectus lōra* (*Æn.* ii. 273), *pierced with thongs*, comes from a mixture of two constructions: —

- (1) *eum trāiecit lōra*, *he rove thongs through him*,¹ and
 (2) *eum trāiecit lōris*, *he pierced him with thongs*.

In putting the sentence into a passive form, the direct object of the former (*lōra*) is irregularly kept, and the direct object of the latter (*eum*) is made the subject.

c. Verbs of *asking* and *teaching* may take two accusatives, one of the Person (*direct object*), and the other of the Thing (*secondary object*): as,

mē sententiam rogāvit, *he asked me my opinion*.

ōtium divōs rogat (*Hor. Od.* ii. 16. 1), *he prays the gods for rest*.

haec cum praetōrem postulābās (*Tull.* 39), *when you demanded this of the praetor*.

aedilis populum rogāre (*Liv.* vi. 42), *to ask the people [to elect] aediles*.

docēre puerōs elementa, *to teach children their A B C's*.

NOTE 1. — Some verbs of *asking* take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative. So, always, *petō* (*ab*), *quaerō* (*ex*, *ab*, *dē*), often *postulo* (*ab*), and occasionally others: as, —

pācem ab Rōmānīs petiērunt (*B. G.* ii. 13), *they sought peace from the Romans*.

quod quaesivit ex mē *P. Appulēius* (*Phil.* vi. 1), *what Publius Appuleius asked of me*.

NOTE 2. — With the passive of verbs of asking or teaching, the *person* or the *thing* may be used as subject (*cf. d. note*): as, —

Caesar sententiam rogātus est, *Cæsar was asked his opinion*.

id ab eō flagitābātur (*B. C.* i. 71), *this was urgently demanded of him*.

¹ Perhaps not found in the active, but *cf. trāiectō rīne* (*Æn.* v. 438).

Syntax: Construction of Cases. [§§ 239, 240.]

REMARK. — The accusative of the *thing* may be retained with the passive of *rogō*, and of verbs of teaching, and occasionally with a few other verbs: as, —

fuerant hōc rogāti (Cael. 64), *they had been asked this*.

poscor meum Laelapa (Ov. Met. vii. 771), *I am asked for my Laelaps*.

Cicerō per lēgātōs cūneta ēdoctus (Sall. Cat. 45), *Cicero being informed of everything through the ambassadors*.

But with most verbs of asking in prose the accusative of the thing becomes the subject-nominative, and the person is put in the ablative with a preposition: as, —

nē postulantur quidem virēs ā senectūte (Cael. M. 34), *strength is not even expected of an old man* (asked from old age).

d. The verb *cōlō*, *conceal*, may take two accusatives, and the usually intransitive *lateō*, *lie hid*, an accusative of the person (cf. § 237. c): as, —

nōn tē cōlāvi sērmōnem T. Ampī (Fam. ii. 16), *I did not conceal from you the talk of T. Ampius*.

nec latuere doli frātre m lūnōnis (Æn. i. 130), *nor did the wiles of Juno escape the notice of her brother*.

NOTE. — All the double constructions indicated in *c* and *d* arise from the wavering meaning of the verbs. Thus *doceō* means both to *show* a thing, and to *instruct* a person; *cōlō*, to *keep* a person in the dark, and to *hide* a thing; *rogō*, to *question* a person, and to *ask* a question or a thing. Thus either accusative may be regarded as the direct object, and so become the subject of the passive (cf. *c*, note a, above), but for convenience the accusative of the thing is usually called secondary.

4. Idiomatic Uses.

240. The Accusative has the following special uses: —

a. A neuter pronoun or adjective is used as cognate accusative with an adverbial force (*Adverbial Accusative*, cf. § 238. b): as, —

quid moror, *why do I delay?*

dulce loquentem (Hor. Od. i. 22. 24), *sweetly speaking*.

acerba tuēns (Æn. ix. 794), *looking cruelly*.

torvum clāmat (id. vii. 399), *he cries harshly*.

NOTE. — This use does not differ from the cognate accusative except that in some cases the connection of the accusative with the verb has faded out so that the words are real adverbs. But no fixed line can be drawn between these two constructions.

b. The accusative is found in a few adverbial phrases: as, —

id temporis, *at that time*.

id (istūc) aetātis, *at that age*.

id (quod) genus, *of that (what) sort* (perhaps originally nominative).

meam vicem, *on my part*.

māximam partem, *for the most part*.

bonam partem, *in a great measure*.

virile sexus, *of the male sex* (probably originally in apposition).

cetera, *in other respects*.

quod ei, *but (as to which) &c.*

c. The so-called *synecdochical* or Greek accusative is used by the poets to denote the part affected: as, —

caput nectentur (*Æn.* v. 309), *their head shall be bound* (they shall be bound about the head).

ardentis oculōs suffecti sanguine et igni (*id.* ii. 210), *their glaring eyes bloodshot and blazing with fire* (suffused as to their eyes, etc.).

nūda genū (*id.* i. 320), *bare to the knee*.

NOTE. — In many apparently similar expressions the accusative may be regarded as the direct object of a verb in the middle voice (§ 111. a): as, —

inūtile ferrum cingitur (*Æn.* ii. 510), *he girds on the useless steel*.

nodō sinūs collecta fluentis (*id.* i. 320), *having her flowing folds gathered in a knot*.

umerōs internor pelle leōnis (*id.* ii. 722), *I cover my shoulders with a lion's skin*.

prōtinus induitur faciem cultumque Dianæ (*Ov. Met.* ii. 425), *forthwith she assumes the shape and garb of Diana*.

d. The accusative is used in exclamations: as, —

Ō fortunātam rempublicam, *oh, fortunate republic!* [Cf. Ō fortunāta mors (*Philipp.* xiv. 31), *oh, happy death!* (§ 241. c).]

mē miserum, *ah, wretched me!*

ēn quatuor arās (*Ecl.* v. 65), *lo, four altars!*

ēllum (= ēn illum), *there he is!*

eccōs (= ecce cōs), *there they are, look at them!*

prō deūm fidem, *good heavens* (oh, protection of the gods)!

hōcine saeculum (*Ter. Ad.* 304), *oh, this generation!*

huncine hominem (*Verr.* v. 62), *this man, good heavens!*

Ō mē infelicem (*Milon.* 102), *oh, unhappy I!*

NOTE 1. — Such expressions depend upon some long-forgotten verb. The use of *ne* in some cases suggests an original question as in *quid? what? why? tell me*.

NOTE 2. — The omission of the verb has given rise to some other idiomatic accusatives. Such are: —

salūtem (*sc. dicit*) (in letters), *greeting*.

quō mihi fortunam, *of what use is fortune?* [Here no verb is thought of.]

unde mihi lapidem, *where can I get a stone?*

mē dius fidius (*sc. adiuvet*), *so help me heaven* (the god of faith).

e. Duration of time and extent of space are expressed by the accusative (see §§ 256, 257).

f. The subject of the infinitive mood is in the accusative. This is especially frequent after words of knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (*verba sentiendū et dēclārandū*, see § 272).

g. The accusative in later writers is sometimes used in apposition with a clause: as, —

dēserunt tribūnāl . . . manūs intentantēs, causam discordiæ et initium armōrum (Tac. Ann. i. 27), *finally they abandon the tribunal shaking their fists,— a cause of dissension and the beginning of war.*

NOTE.— This construction is an extension (under Greek influence) of a usage more nearly within the ordinary rules, such as,—

Eumenem prōdidere Antiochō, pācis mercēdem (Sall. Ep. Mith.), *they betrayed Eumenes to Antiochus, the price of peace.* [Here Eumenes may be considered the price, although the real price is the betrayal.]

A. For the accusative of the End of Motion, see § 258; for that after *postrīdīā*, *propior*, etc., see § 261. *a.*

[For the Accusative with Prepositions, see § 152. *a.*, *c.*]

IV.—VOCATIVE.

241. The Vocative is the case of direct address: as,—

Tiberine pater, tē sancte precor (Livy ii. 10), *O, father Tiber, thee, holy one, I pray.*

a. A noun in the nominative in apposition with the subject of the imperative mood is sometimes used instead of the vocative: as,—

audi tū, populus Albānus (Liv. i. 24), *hear, thou people of Alba.*

b. The vocative of an adjective is sometimes used instead of the nominative, where the verb is in the second person: as,—

cēnsōrem trabeāte salūtās (Pers. iii. 29), *robed you salute the censor.*

c. The nominative may be used in exclamations (cf. § 240. *d.*): as,—
ēn dextra fidēsque (Æn. iv. 597), *lo, the faith and plighted word!*

d. The vocative *mācte* is used as a predicate in the phrase *mācte estō* (*virtūte*), *success attend your (valor).* Thus,—

iuberem te mācte virtūte (Liv. ii. 12), *I should bid you go on and prosper in your valor.*

NOTE.— As the quantity of the final *e* in *mācte* is not determinable, it may be that the word was an adverb, as in *bene est*, and the like. (See American Journal of Philology, Vol. I.)

V.—ABLATIVE.

242. The Ablative is used to denote the relations expressed in English by the prepositions FROM, IN, AT, WITH, BY: as,—

liberāre metū, to deliver from fear.

cacūs avāritiā, blind with avarice.

occūs gladiō, slain by the sword.

excultus doctrinā, trained in learning.

hūc ipso tempore, at this very time.

NOTE. — The ablative form contains three distinct cases, ~~the~~ the Ablative proper, expressing the relation FROM; the Locative, IN; and the Instrumental, WITH or BY. This confusion has arisen partly from phonetic decay (§ 8), by means of which the three cases have become identical in form, and partly from the development by which they have approached one another in meaning. Compare, for the first, the like forms of the dative and ablative plural, the old dative in -*is* of the fifth declension (§ 74. a), and the loss of the original -*d* in the ablative (§§ 36. f, 62. a); and, for the second, the phrases *à parte dextrâ*, ON the right; *quam ob causam*, FROM which cause; *ad fâmam*, AT (in consequence of) the report.

The relation of FROM includes *separation, source, cause, agent, and comparison*; that of WITH or BY, *accompaniment, instrument, means, manner, quality, and price*; that of IN or AT, *place, time, circumstance*. It is probable that, originally, the idea of *accompaniment* had a separate case, which became confounded with the instrumental before Latin was separated from the kindred tongues.

The following are the uses of the Latin Ablative, classed according to the original cases which have been combined in it: —

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. ABLATIVE (<i>from</i>): | 1. Of Separation, Privation, and Want (§ 243).
2. Of Source (participles of origin, etc.) (§ 244).
3. Of Cause (<i>gaudeo</i> , <i>dignus</i> , etc.) (§ 245).
4. Of Agent (with <i>ab</i> after Passives) (§ 246).
5. Of Comparison (<i>than</i>) (§ 247). |
| 2. INSTRUMENTAL
ABLATIVE (<i>with</i>): | 1. Of Manner, Means, and Instrument (§ 248).
2. Of Accompaniment (with <i>cum</i>) (§ 248. a).
3. Of Object of the Deponents <i>utor</i> , etc. (§ 249).
4. Of Degree of Difference (§ 250).
5. Of Quality (with Adjectives) (§ 251).
6. Of Price and Exchange (§ 252).
7. Of Specification (§ 253). |
| 3. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE (<i>in, on, at</i>): | 1. Of Place <i>where</i> (commonly with <i>in</i>) (§ 254).
2. Of Idiomatic Expressions (§ 254. a).
3. Of Time and Circumstance (§ 256).
4. Ablative Absolute (§ 255). |

1. Ablative of Separation.

243. Words signifying Separation or Privation are followed by the ablative, with or without a preposition.

a. Verbs meaning to *remove, set free, be absent, deprive, and want*, require the ablative: as, —

oculis se privavit (Fin. v. 87), *he deprived himself of eyes.*

legibus solutus, *relieved from the obligation of laws.*

omni Galliâ interdicat Rômanis (B. G. i. 46), *he (Ariovistus) bars the Romans from the whole of Gaul.*

ei aqua et igni interdicitur (Vell. Pat. ii. 45), *he is debarred the use of fire and water.*

voluptatibus carere (Cat. Maj. 7), *to lack enjoyments.*

non egeo medicinâ (Lael. 10), *I want no physic.*

magnô me metû liberabis (Cat. l. 10), *you will relieve me of great fear.*

Ephorus calcâribus eget (Quint.), *Ephorus needs the spur.*

levāmur superstitiōne, liberāmur mortis metū (Fin. i. 63), *we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death.*
 cōsiliū et auctoritatē orbārī (Cato M. 17), *to be bereft of counsel and authority.*

b. Verbs compounded with **ā**, **ab**, **dē**, **ex**, take the simple ablative when used *figuratively*; but when used literally to denote *separation* or *motion*, they usually require a preposition (see § 258). Thus, —

cōnatū dēsistere (B. G. i. 8), *to desist from the attempt.*
 dēsine cōmūnibus locis (Acad. ii. 80), *quit commonplaces.*
 abire magistratū, *to leave one's office.*
 abstinēre iniuriā, *to refrain from wrong.*
 But, — aberrāre ā propositō (Cic.), *to wander from the point.*
 dē provinciā dēcedere (Verr. ii. 48), *to withdraw from one's province.*
 ab iure abire (id.), *to go outside of the law.*
 ex civitatē excēssere (B. G. vi. 8), *they departed from the state.* [But cf. finibus suis excēsserant (id. iv. 18), *they had left their own territory.*]
 ā magnō dēmissum nōmen Iūlō (Aen. i. 288), *a name descended (sent down) from great Iulus.*

NOTE. — For the Dative used instead of the Ablative of Separation, see § 229.

c. For the ablative of the actual *place whence* in idiomatic expressions, see § 258. *a*, and note 2.

d. Adjectives denoting *freedom* and *want* are followed by the ablative: *as*, —

urbs nūda praesidiō (Att. vii. 13), *the city naked of defence.*
 immūnis militiā (Liv. i. 43), *free of military service.*
 plēbs orba tribūnis (Leg. iii. 9), *the people deprived of tribunes.*
 NOTE. — Some adjectives of want take the genitive (see § 218. *a*).

e. Opus and ūsus, signifying *need*, are followed by the ablative: *as*, —

magistrātibus opus est (Leg. iii. 5), *there is need of magistrates.*
 nunc viribus ūsus (Aen. viii. 441), *now there is need of strength.*

NOTE. — With these words the ablative of the *perfect participle*, with or without a noun, is often found (§ 292. *b*): *as*, —

opus est tuā exprōptā memoriā atque astūtiā (Ter. And. 723), *I must have your good memory and cleverness set to work.*
 propētiō opus erat (Mil. 49), *there was need of haste.*
 factō ūsus est, *it is desirable to do* (there is need of the thing's being done).

REMARK. — Frequently opus is in the predicate, with the *thing needed* in the nominative as subject: *as*, —

¹ This construction is properly an instrumental one, in which opus and ūsus mean *work* and *service*, and the ablative expresses that with which the work is performed or the service rendered.

dūx nobis et auctor opus est (Fam. ii. 6), *we need a chief and responsible adviser* (a chief, etc., is necessary for us).

si quid ipsi opus esset (B. G. i. 34), *if he himself wanted anything* (if anything should be necessary for him).

quae opus sunt (Cato R. R. 14, 3), *things which are required*.

f. Egeō and indigeō are often followed by the genitive (§ 223): as, —

nē quis auxili egeat (B. G. vi. 11), *lest any require aid*.

quae ad cōsolandum māiōris ingenī et ad ferendum singulāris virtūtis indigent (Fam. vi. 4), [*sorrows*] *which for their comforting need more ability, and for endurance unusual courage*.

REMARK. — The Genitive is by a Greek idiom often used in poetry instead of the Ablative with all words of *separation* and *want* (§ 223. b. 3): as, —

abstinētō irarum (Hor. Od. iii. 27. 70), *abstain from wrath*.

operum solūtis (id. 17. 16), *free from toil*.

dēsine mollium querelārum (id. ii. 9. 17), *have done with weak complaints*.

2. Ablative of Source and Material.

244. The Ablative with or without a preposition is used to denote the Source from which anything is derived, or the Material of which it consists.

These ablatives commonly take a preposition: as, —

1. Source: —

Rhēnus oritur ex Lēpontiis (B. G. iv. 10), *the Rhine rises in (from) the country of the Lepontii*.

ab aliquō sermō oritur (Laelius 5), *the conversation is begun by (arises from) some one*.

cūius ratiōnis vim atque utilitatem ex illō caelestī Epicūri volūmine accēpimus (Nat. D. i. 43), *of this reasoning we have learned the power and advantage from that divine book of Epicurus*.

suāvitatem odōrum quī afflārentur ē flōribus (Cato Major 59), *the sweetness of the odors which breathed from the flowers*.

2. Material: —

erat tōtus ex fraude et mendāciō factus (Clu. 72), *he was entirely made up of fraud and falsehood*.

valvās magnificentiōrēs, ex aurō atque ebore perfectiōrēs (Verr. iv. 124), *more splendid doors, more finely wrought of gold and ivory*.

fastum dē cautibus antrum (Ov. Met. i. 575), *a cave formed of rocks*.

templum dē marmore pōnam (Georg. iii. 13), *I'll build a temple of marble*.

NOTE 1. — In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

NOTE 2. — The Ablative of Material is a development of the Ablative of Source (cf. § 214).

a. Participles denoting *birth* or *origin* are followed by the Ablative of Source, generally without a preposition:¹ as, —

Iove nātus et Māiā (N. D. iii. 56), *son of Jupiter and Maia*

ēdite rēgibus (Hor. Od. i. 1. 1), *descendant of kings.*

quō sanguine crētus (Æn. ii. 74), *born of what blood.*

genitae Pandione (Ov. Met. vi. 666), *daughters of Pandion.*

REMARK. — A preposition (**ab**, **dē**, **ex**) is usually expressed with the name of the mother, and often with that of other ancestors: as, —

cum **ex** utrāque [uxōre] filius nātus esset (De Orat. i. 183), *each wife having had a son* (when a son had been born of each wife).

Trōs est generātus ab illō (Ov. Fast. iv. 33), *Tros was sprung from him.*

ex mē hic nātus nōn est sed **ex** frātre meō (Ter. Ad. 40), *this is not my son, but my brother's* (not born from me, etc.).

Bēlus et omnēs ā Bēlō (Æn. i. 730), *Belus and all his descendants.*

b. Rarely, the place of birth is expressed by the ablative of source: as, —

desideravit C. Felginātem Placentiā, A. Grānium Puteolis (B. C. iii. 71), *he lost C. Felginas of Placentia, A. Granius of Puteoli.*

NOTE. — The Roman tribe is regularly expressed by the ablative alone: as, —

Q. Verrem Rōmiliā (Verres i. 23), *Quintus Verres of the Romilian tribe.*

c. Some verbs may take the Ablative of Material without a preposition. Such are **cōnstāre**, **cōsistere**, and **continēri**.² But with **cōnstāre**, **ex** is more common. Thus: —

domūs amoenitās nōn aedificiō sed silvā cōnstābat (Nep. Att. 13), *the charm of the house consisted not in the buildings but in the woods.*

ex animō cōstāmus et corpore (Fin. iv. 19), *we consist of soul and body.*

vita corpore et spirītū continētur (Marc. 28), *life consists of body and spirit.*

d. The Ablative of Material without a preposition is used with **facere**, **fieri**, and similar words, in the sense of *do with*, *become of*: as, —

quid hōc homine faciātis (Ver. ii. 1. 42), *what are you going to do with this man?*

quid Tulliōlā meā fiet (Fam. xiv. 4), *what will become of my dear Tullia?*

quid tū futurum est (Ver. ii. 155), *what will become of you?*

e. The Ablative of Material with **ex**, and in poetry without a preposition, sometimes depends directly on a noun: as, —

nōn pauca pōcula **ex** aurō (Verr. iv. 62), *not a few cups of gold.*

scopulis pendentibus antrum (Æn. i. 166), *a cave of hanging rocks.*

¹ Such are **nātus**, **satus**, **ēditus**, **genitus**, **ortus**, **prōgnātus**, **generātus**, **crētus**, **crētus**, **oriundus**.

² The ablative with **cōsistere** and **continēri** is locative in origin (cf. § 244. d.).

f. For Genitive of Material, see § 214. e.

g. For Ablative of Source instead of Partitive Genitive, see § 216. c.

3. Ablative of Cause.

245. The ablative (with or without a preposition) is used to express Cause.¹

nimiō gaudiō paene dēsipiēbam (Fam. ii. 9), *I was almost wild from too much joy.*

neglegentiā plectimur (Lael. 85), *we are chastised for negligence.*

gubernātoris ars utilitātē nōn arte laudātur (Fam. i. 13), *the pilot's skill is praised for its service, not its skill.*

certis dē causis, *for certain reasons.*

ex vulnere aeger (Rep. ii. 38), *disabled by (from) a wound.*

mare ā sōle lucet (Ac. ii. 105), *the sea gleams in the sun (from the sun).*

ex opportunitātē loci (Jug. 48, 2), *from the advantage of position.*

a. Certain verbs and adjectives regularly take the ablative of cause without a preposition. These are:—

1. The adjectives **dignus**, **indignus**: as,

vir patre avō mālōribus suis dignissimus (Phil. iii. 25), *a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors.*

tē omni honōre indignissimum iūdicat (Vatinius 39), *he judges you entirely unworthy of every honor.*

2. The verbs **dignor**, **labōrō** (also with **ex**), **exsiliō**, **exsultō**, **triumphō**, **lacrimō**, **ārdeō**: as, —

haud equidem tāli mē dignor honōre (Ain. i. 335), *I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor.*

doleō tē aliis malis labōrāre (Fam. iv. 3), *I am sorry that you suffer with other ills.*

ex aere aliēnō labōrāre (B. C. iii. 22), *to labor under debt (lit., from another's money).*

exsultāre laetitīā ac triūphāre gaudiō coepit (Clu. 14), *she began to exult in gladness, and triumph in joy.*

exsiliui gaudiō (Fam. xvi. 16), *I jumped for joy.*

lacrimō gaudiō (Ter. Ad. 409), *I weep for joy.*

dēlectō dolēre (Lael. 90), *to grieve for the fault.*

ārdeō dolōre et frā (Att. ii. 19), *to be on fire with pain and anger.*

NOTE 1.—For **gaudeō** and **glōrior**, see § 254. b.

¹ The cause, in the ablative, is originally *source*, as is shown by the use of **ab**, **dē**, **ex**; but when the accusative with **ad**, **ob** is used, the idea of cause arises from *nearness*. Occasionally, however, it is difficult to distinguish between *cause* and *means* (which is the old Instrumental Case) or *circumstance* (which is either the Locative or the Instrumental).

Syntax: Construction of Cases. [§§ 245, 246.]

NOTE 2. — **Dignus** and **indignus** sometimes take the genitive in colloquial usage and in poetry: as, —

cūram dignissimam tuæ virtūtis (Balbus in Att. viii. 15), *care most worthy of your noble character.*

dignus salūtis (Plaut. Trin. 1153), *worthy of safety.*

māgnōrum haud umquam indignus avōrum (Æn. xii. 649), *never unworthy my great ancestors.*

NOTE 3. — For the construction of **dignus** and **indignus** with verbs, see § 320. f.

b. The *motive* which influences the mind of the person acting is expressed by the ablative of cause; the *object* exciting the emotion often by **ob**¹ or **propter** with the accusative: as, —

nōn **ob** praedam aut spoliandi cupidine (Tac. H. i. 63), *not for booty or through lust of plunder.*

amicitia **ex** sē et **propter** sē expetenda (Fin. ii. 83), *friendship must be sought of and for itself.*

NOTE. — But these constructions are often confused: as, —

pārere lēgibus **propter** metum (Parad. 34), *to obey the laws on account of fear.* [Here **metum** is almost equivalent to "the terrors of the law," and hence **propter** is used, though the ablative would be more natural.]

c. The ablatives **causā** and **grātiā**, *for the sake of*, are used with a genitive preceding, or with a pronoun in agreement: as, —

eā causā, *on account of this*; quā grātiā (Ter. Eun. 99), *for what purpose?*

meā causā, *for my sake*; meā grātiā (Plaut.), *for my sake.*

ex meā et reipublicae causā, *for my own sake and the republic's.*

praedictionis causā (Nat. D. iii. 5), *by way of prophecy.*

exempli grātiā (verbi grātiā), *for example.*

sui purgandi grātiā, *for the sake of clearing themselves.*

NOTE. — But **grātiā** with possessives in this use is rare.

4. Ablative of Agent.

246. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the ablative with **a** or **ab**: as, —

laudātur **ab** his, culpātur **ab** illis (Hor. Sat. i. 2. 11), *he is praised by these, blamed by those.*

ab animō tuō quicquid agitur id agitur **a** tē (Tusc. i. 52), *whatever is done by your soul is done by yourself.*

¹ This use of **ob** was originally mercantile; cf. **ob** decem minās, *for the price of ten minas* (see p. 137).

ā filiis in iudicium vocatus est (Cat. Major 22), *he was brought to trial by his sons.*

cum ā cūctō cōnsēssū plausus esset multiplex datus (Cat. Major 64), *when great applause had been given by the whole audience.*

nē viris ab audaciā vinceretur (Sest. 92), *that valor might not be overborne by audacity.*

NOTE. — This construction is developed from the Ablative of Source. The agent is conceived as the *source* or *author* of the action.

REMARK. — The ablative of the *agent* (which requires ā or ab) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of *instrument*, which has no preposition (§ 248, c, 1). Thus —

occisus gladiō, *slain by a sword*; but, occisus ab hoste, *slain by an enemy.*

a. The ablative of the agent with **ab** is sometimes used after neuter verbs that have a passive sense: as, —

perire ab hoste, *to be slain by an enemy.*

b. The agent, when considered as instrument or means, is expressed by **per** with the accusative, or by **operā** with a genitive or possessive. Thus, —

Caesar certior factus est ā lēgātis, *Cæsar was informed by the ambassadors (in person).* But, —

Caesar certior factus est **per** lēgātōs, *Cæsar was informed by ambassadors (i.e. by means of ambassadors).*

ēlautae operā Neptūnī (Plaut. Rud. 699), *washed clean by the services of Neptune.*

nōn meā operā ēvēnit (Ter. Hec. 228), *it hasn't happened through me (by my exertions).*

NOTE 1. — An animal is usually regarded not as the *agent*, but as the *means* or *instrument*. Hence the simple ablative is used. But **ab** sometimes occurs. Thus, —

equō vehī, *to ride on horseback* (be conveyed by means of a horse). [Not **ab** equō.] But, —

Lūcānō cum sic lacereris ab ursō (Mart. Ep. 8), *since you are thus mangled by a Lucanian bear.*

NOTE 2. — For the Dative of the Agent with the Gerundive, see § 232.

5. Ablative of Comparison.

247. The Comparative degree is followed by the ablative¹ (signifying **THAN**): as, —

Catō est Cicerōne eloquentior, *Cato is more eloquent than Cicero.*

quid nobis duobus laboriosius est (Mil. 5), *what more burdened with toil than we two?*

¹ This is a branch of the Ablative of Separation. The object with which anything is compared is the starting-point *from which* we reckon. Thus, "*Cicero is eloquent*"; but starting *from him* we come to Cato, who is "*more so than he*."

vilius argentum est aurō, virtūtibus aurum (Hor. Ep. i. 1. 52), *silver is less precious than gold, gold than virtue.*

a. The comparative may be followed by *quam*, *than*. When *quam* is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (cf. § 208. a).

The construction with *quam* is required when the first of the things compared is in any other case than the nominative or accusative. With those cases its use is optional. Thus, —

contionibus accommodatior est quam iudiciis (Cic. 2), *fitter for popular assemblies than for courts.*

misericordiā dignior quam contumeliā (Piso 32), *more worthy of pity than of disgrace.*

nōn callidior es quam hic (Rosc. Am. 49), *you are not more cunning than he.*

REMARK. — Relative pronouns having a definite antecedent never take *quam* in this construction, but always the ablative: as, —

rēx erat Aenēas nobis, quō iustior alter, etc. (Æn. i. 545), *Aeneas was our king, than whom no other was more righteous*, etc.

NOTE. — The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires *quam*: as, —

pāne ego iam mellitis potiore placentis (Hor. Ep. i. 10), *I want bread better than honey-cakes.*

b. The idiomatic ablatives *opiniōne*, *spē*, *solitō*, *dictō*, *aequō*, *credibilī*, and *iustō* are used after comparatives instead of a clause: as,

gravius aequō (Sall.), *more seriously than was right.*

celerius opiniōne (Fam. xiv. 23), *faster than one would think.*

amnis solitō citatior (Liv. xxiii. 19), *a stream swifter than its wont.*

serius spē omnium (Liv. xxvi. 26), *later than all hoped* (than the hope of all).

c. After the comparatives *plūs*, *minus*, *amplius*, *longius* without *quam*, a word of *measure* or *number* is often used with no change in its case: as, —

plūs septingentī capti (Liv. xli. 12), *more than 700 were taken.*

plūs tertiā parte interfectā (Cæs.), *more than a third part being slain.*

spatium nōn amplius sexcentōrum pedum (id.), *a space of not more than 600 feet.*

NOTE. — The noun takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative, which is really in a sort of apposition, "*seven hundred were taken* [and] *more*."

d. *Alius* is sometimes followed by the ablative in poetic and colloquial use¹; in formal prose it is followed by *ac* (atque), *nisi*, *quam*. Thus,

¹ This has been thought to be an imitation of the Greek, but the construction is found also in Sanskrit, and is probably original.

nec quicquam aliud libertate commūni (Fam. xi. 2), *nothing else than the common liberty.*

alius Lysippō (Hor.), *another than Lysippus.*

aliū sapiente bonoque (Hor. Ep. i. 16. 20), *other than the wise and good.*

aliō ingenio ac tū (Plaut.), *of a different disposition from you.*

erat histōria nihil aliud nisi annālium cōfectiō (De Or. ii. 52), *history was nothing else but a compiling of records.*

nīl aliud nisi quod sibi placet (Plaut. Trin. 395), *nothing else than what pleases him.*

e. The comparative of an adverb is usually followed by *quam*, rarely by the ablative except in poetry. Thus, —

tempus tē citius quam orātiō dēceret (Rosc. Am. 89), *time would fail you sooner than words.* But, —

cur Sybaris olivum sanguine viperinō cautius vitat (Hor. Od. i. 8. 9), *why does Sybaris shun oil more carefully than viper's blood?*

6. Ablative of Manner.

NOTE. — Accompaniment, Manner, Means, and Instrument are denoted by the instrumental ablative (see p. 245), but some of these more commonly take a preposition. As they all come from one source (the old *Instrumental Case*) no sharp line can be drawn between them, and indeed the Romans themselves never thought of any distinction. Thus in *omnibus precibus orābant*, *they entreated with every [kind of] prayer*, the ablative is properly that of *means*, but cannot be distinguished from *manner*.

248. The *manner* of an action is denoted by the Ablative; usually with *cum*, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun. Thus, —

cum celeritate vēnit, *he came with speed.* But, —

summā celeritate vēnit, *he came with the greatest speed.*

quid refert quā me ratione cōgātis (Laelius 26), *what difference does it make in what way you compel me?*

NOTE. — But *cum* is often used even when the ablative has a limiting adjective: as, —

quantō cum periculō id fecerit (B. G. i. 17), *at what risk he did this.*

nōn minore cum taediō recubant (Plin. Ep. ix. 17, 3), *they recline with no less weariness.*

REMARK. — With such words of manner as *modō*, *pactō*, *ratione*, *ritū*, *vīl*, and with stock expressions which have become virtually adverbs (as *silentiō*, *infuriō*), *cum* is very rare. Thus, —

spis Matinae more modōque carmina fingō (Hor. Od. iv. 2. 28), *in the style and manner of a Matinian bee I fashion songs.*

So in poetry the ablative of manner often omits *cum*: as, —

mons aquae sequitur cumulō (Æn. i. 105), *a mountain of water follows in a mass.* [Cf. *marmare* (id. 124); *rimis* (id. 123).]

7. Ablative of Accompaniment.

a. Accompaniment is denoted by the ablative, regularly with *cum* : as, —

cum coniugibus ac liberis vestris, with your wives and children.

cum funditoribus sagittariisque flumen transgressi (B. G. ii. 19), having crossed the river with the archers and slingers.

quae supplicatio si cum ceteris conferatur (Catil. iii. 15), if this thanksgiving be compared with others.

quae [lēx] esse cum tēlo vetat (Milon. 11), the law which forbids [one] to go armed (be with a weapon).

si secum suos eduxerit (Catil. i. 30), if he leads out with him his associates. [For *secum*, see § 99. e.]

NOTE. — The ablative is used without *cum* in military phrases, and here and there by early writers : as, —

subsequēbatur omnibus copiis (B. G. ii. 19), he followed close with all his forces.

hōc praesidiō profectus est (Ver. ii. i. 86), with this force he set out.

REMARK. — *Misceo* and *iungo*, with their compounds, and *confundo* may take either (1) the Ablative of Accompaniment with or without *cum*, or (2) sometimes the Dative : as, —

mixta dolore voluptas (B. Al. 56), pleasure mingled with pain.

cuius animum cum suo misceat (Laelius 81), whose soul he may mingle with his own.

flētumque cruori miscuit (Ov. Met. iv. 140), and mingled tears with blood.

Caesar eas cohortes cum suo exercitū coniūxit (B. C. i. 18), Caesar united those cohorts with his own army.

aër coniunctus terris (Lucr. v. 562), air united with earth.

humano capiti cervicem equinam iungere (Hor. A. P. 1), to join to a human head a horse's neck.

b. Words of Contention and the like require *cum* : as, —

armis cum hoste certare, to fight with the enemy in arms.

libenter haec cum Q. Catulō disputārem (Leg. Man. 66), I should gladly discuss these matters with Quintus Catulus.

NOTE. — But words of contention may take the Dative in poetry (see § 229. c).

8. Ablative of Means.

c. 1. The Ablative is used to denote the means or instrument of an action : as, —

certantes pugnis, calcibus, unguibus, morsu denique (Tuscul. v. 77), fighting with fists, heels, nails, and even teeth.

cum pugnis et calcibus concisus esset (Verr. iii. 56), when he had been pummelled with their fists and heels.

meis laboribus interitū rempublicam liberāvi (Sulla, 33), *by my toils I have saved the state from ruin.*

multae istārum arborum meā manū sunt satae (Cat. Major 59), *many of those trees were set out with my own hands.*

2. The Ablative of Means is used with verbs and adjectives of *filling*, *abounding*, and the like: as, —

Deus bonis omnibus explēvit mundum (Univ. 9), *God has filled the world with all good things.*

aggere et crātibus fossās explent (B. G. vii. 86), *they fill up the ditches with earth and fascines.*

tōtum montem hominibus complēvit (i. l. i. 24), *he filled the whole mountain with men.*

opimus praedā (Ver. ii. l. 132), *rich with spoils.*

vita plēna et cōferta voluptatibus (Sest. 23), *a life filled and crowded with delights.*

Forum Appi differtum nautis (Hor. Sat. i. 5. 4), *Forum Appii crammed with bargemen.*

REMARK. — In poetry the Genitive is often used with these words by a Greek idiom. But *compleō*, *impleō*, *plēnus* and *refertus* often take the genitive in prose (cf. § 223). Thus, —

omnia plēna luctūs et maerōris fuerunt (Sest. 128), *everything was full of grief and mourning.*

ollam dēnariōrum implēre (Fam. ix. 18), *to fill a pot with money.* [Here evidently colloquial, otherwise rare in Cicero.]

convivium vicinōrum compleō (Cato Major 46, in the mouth of Cato), *I fill up the banquet with my neighbors.*

249. The deponents *utor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, *potior*, *vescor*, with several of their compounds,¹ govern the ablative: as,

ūtār vestrā benignitāte (Arch. 18), *I will avail myself of your kindness.*
sagacitate canum ad utilitatem nostram abūtīmur (N. D. ii. 151), *we take advantage of the sagacity of dogs for our own benefit.*

ita mihi salvā repūblicā vobiscum perfrui liceat (Catil. iv. 11), *so may I enjoy with you the state secure and prosperous.*

aurō hērōs potitur (Ov. Met. vii. 155), *the hero takes the gold.*

Numidae plerumque lacte et ferinā carne vescēbantur (Jug. 88), *the Numidians fed mostly on milk and game.*

fungi ināni mūnere (En. vi. 885), *to perform an idle service.*

NOTE. — This is really an Ablative of Means and the verbs are really in the middle voice (§ III. a). Thus *utor* signifies *I employ myself, or avail myself by means of, etc.* But these earlier meanings disappeared from the language, leaving the construction as we find it.

¹ These are *abutor*, *defutor*, *defungor*, *defruor*, *perfruer*, *perfungor*.

a. *Potiri* sometimes takes the Genitive, as always in the phrase *potiri rerum*, to get control or be master of affairs (§ 223. *a*): as, —
tōtius Galliae scēse potiri posse spērant (B. G. i. 3), *they hope they can get possession of the whole of Gaul.*

b. In early Latin, these verbs are often transitive, and take the accusative: as, —

ille patria potitur commoda (Ter. Ad. 871), *he enjoys his ancestral estate.*
fūctus est officium (Ter. Ph. 281), *he performed the part, etc.*

NOTE. — The Gerundive of these verbs is used personally in the passive as if the verb were transitive (but cf. § 294. *c*): as, —

Hērachiō omnia ūtenda ac possidenda trādiderat (Verr. ii. 46), *he had given over everything to Heraclius for his use and possession (to be used and possessed).*

9. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

250. With comparatives and words implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the Degree of Difference: as, —

duobus milibus plūrēs, *two thousand more* (more by two thousand).
quinque milibus passuum distat, *it is five miles distant* (it stands off by five miles).

aliquot ante annis (Tuscul. i. 4), *several years before.*

aliquantō post suspēxit (Rep. vi. 9), *a while after he looked up.*

multō mē vigilāre acrius (Cat. i. 8), *that I watch much more sharply* (more sharply by much).

nihilō erat ipse Cyclōps quam ariēs prūdētiōr (Tuscul. v. 115), *the Cyclops himself was not a whit wiser than the ram.*

REMARK. — This use is especially frequent with the ablatives *quō ... eō* (*hō*); *quantō ... tantō* (cf. § 106. *c*): as, —

quō minus cupiditātis, eō plūs auctōritātis (Liv. xxiv. 28), *the less greed, the more weight* (by what the less, by that the more).

quantō erat gravior oppugnātiō, tantō crebriōrēs litterae mittēbantur (B. G. v. 45), *the more severe the siege was, the more frequently letters were sent.*

NOTE. — To this construction are doubtless to be referred all cases of *quō* and *eō* with a comparative even when they have ceased to be felt as degree of difference and approach the Ablative of Cause: as, —

eōque mē minus paenitet (Nat. D. i. 8), *and for that reason I regret less, etc.* (by so much the less I regret).

a. The Ablative of Comparison (§ 247) and the Ablative of Degree of Difference are often used together with the same adjective: as, —

multō divitior Crasō, *much richer than Crassus.*

10. Ablative of Quality.

251. The *quality* of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with a Modifier (either an adjective or limiting genitive).

This is called the *Descriptive Ablative* or *Ablative of Quality*.

animō meliōre sunt gladiatōrēs (Catil. ii. 26), *the gladiators are of a better mind*.

quae cum esset civitās aequissimō iūre ac foedere (Arch. 6), *as this was a city with perfectly equal constitutional rights*.

mulierem eximiā pulchritūdine (Ver. ii. i. 64), *a woman of extraordinary beauty*.

Hortēnsius memoriā tantā fuit ut, etc. (Brutus, 301), *Hortensius had so good a memory that*, etc. (was of so great memory).

quam blātō animō est (Thēramenēs) (Tuscul. i. 96), *how lofty a spirit Thēramenes displays*.

Aristotelēs, vir summō ingeniō, scientiā, cōpiā (Tuscul. i. 7), *Aristotle, a man of the greatest genius, learning, and gift of expression*.

quam tenui aut nūlla potius valētudine (Cato Major 35), *what feeble health he had, or rather none at all*!

dē Domitiō dixit versum Graecum eadē sententiā (Deiot. 23), *concerning Domitius he recited a Greek line of the same tenor*.

NOTE.—The Ablative of Quality (like the Genitive of Quality) modifies a substantive by describing it. It is therefore equivalent to an adjective, and may be either attributive or predicate. In this it differs from other ablatives, which are equivalent to adverbs. Compare,—

mulier pulchra, *a beautiful woman*.

mulier magnā pulchritūdine, *a woman of great beauty*, with —

mulier pulchritūdine Trōiam dēlevit, *by her beauty a woman destroyed Troy*.

mulier excellēns pulchritūdine (§ 253), *a woman preëminent in beauty*.

a. In expressions of quality the Genitive or the Ablative may often be used indifferently; but *physical* qualities are oftener denoted by the Ablative (cf. § 215, note): as,—

capillō sunt prōmissō (B. G. v. 14), *they have long hair*.

ut capite opertō sit (Cato Major 34), *to have his head covered* (to be of covered head).

11. Ablative of Price.

252. The *Price* of a thing is put in the ablative: as,—

agrum vēdidit sēstertiū sex milibus, *he sold the land for 6000 sesterces*.

Antōnius rēgna addidit pecūniā (Philip. vii. 15), *Antony sold thrones for money*.

logōs ridiculōs: qui om̄nā poscit (Pl. Stich. 221), *jokes; who wants them for (at the price of) a dinner?*

magnō illi ea cunctiatiō stetit (Liv. ii. 36), *that hesitation cost him dear*.

NOTE.—To this head is to be referred the Ablative of the Penalty, § 250. A. 2.

a. Certain adjectives of Quantity are used in the Genitive to denote *indefinite value*. Such are *māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris*: as, —

est mihi tantī (Cat. ii. 15), *it is worth the price* (it is of so much).

meā māgnī interest, *it is of great consequence to me*.

illud parvī refert (Manil. 18), *this is of small account*.

Verrēsne tibi tantī fuit (Ver. ii. i. 77), *was Verres of so much account to you?*

tantōne minōris decumae vēniērunt (Verr. iii. 106), *were the tithes sold for so much less?*

ut tē redimās captum quam quēās minimō: si nequēās paululō, at quantī quēās (Ter. Eun. 74), *to ransom yourself, when captured, at the cheapest rate you can; if you can't for a small sum, then at any rate for what you can*.

NOTE. — These are really genitives of quality (§ 215. c).

b. The genitive of certain colorless nouns is used in the same way. Such are *nihilī, nothing; āssis, a farthing; floccī* (a lock of wool), *a straw*. Thus, —

nōn floccī faciō (Att. xiii. 50), *I care not a straw*.

utinam ego istūc abs tē factum nihilī penderem (Ter. Eun. 94), *oh! that I cared nothing for this being done by you!*

ego nōn floccī pendere (Ter. Eun. 411), *I did not care a straw*.

c. With verbs of *exchanging*, either the *thing taken* or the *thing given* in exchange may be in the Ablative of Price. Such are: *mūtāre, commūtāre, permūtāre, vertere*. Thus, —

fidem suam et religiōnem pecūniā commūtāre (Cicentius 129), *to barter his faith and conscience for money*.

vertere fūneribus triumphos (Hor. Od. i. 35. 4), *to change the triumph to the funeral-train* (exchange triumphs for funerals).

exallium patriā sēde mūtāvit (Q. C. iii. 7), *he exchanged his native land for exile* (he took exile in exchange for his native land).

velox amoenum saepe Lucretīllem mūtāt Lycæō Faunus (Hor. Od. i. 17. 3), *nimble Faunus often changes Lycæus for Lucretilis*. [He takes Lucretilis at the price of Lycæus, i.e. he goes from Lycæus to Lucretilis.]

NOTE. — With verbs of *exchanging* *cum* is often used, perhaps with a different conception of the action: as, —

ariēs . . . cum crocō mūtābit vellera lūtō (Ecl. iv. 44), *the ram shall change his fleece for [one dyed with] the yellow saffron*.

d. With verbs of *buying* and *selling* the simple ablative of price must be used, except in the case of *tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris*: as, —

quantū eam emit? vili . . . quot minis? quadrāgintā minis (Pl. Epid. 51), *what did he buy her for? Cheap. For how many minis? Forty*.

12. Ablative of Specification.

253. The Ablative of Specification denotes that *in respect to which* anything is or is done: as, —

virtūte praeceḍunt (B. G. i. 1), *they excel in courage.*

claudus alterō pede (Nep. Ages. 8), *lame of one foot*

linguā haesitantēs, *vōce* absoni (De Orat. i. 115), *hesitating in speech, harsh in voice.*

tanta caritas patriae est, ut eam nōn sēnsū nostrō sed salūte ipsius metimur (Tusc. i. 90), *such is our love of country that we measure it not by our own feeling, but by her own welfare.*

tant enim hominēs nōn rē sed nōmine (Offic. i. 105), *for they are men not in fact, but in name.*

maior nātū, older; *minor nātū*, younger (cf. § 91. c).

Inermis mollisque *nātūrā* (Laelius 75), *weak and yielding by nature.*

paulum aetate progressi (Cat. Major 33), *somewhat it advanced in age.*

corpore senex esse potuit *animo* nunquam erit (Cat. Major 38), *he may have been an old man in body, he never will be [old] at heart.*

non solum rē et sententiā sed *verbis* quoque hōc interdictum ita esse compositum (Caecin. 86), *this prohibition was so conceived not only in substance and effect, but also in language.*

homō meā sententiā prūdentissimus (Caecin. 22), *a man, in my opinion, very wise.*

equitatū pulsi erant (B. G. vii. 68), *they had been beaten in the cavalry fight.*

NOTE. — To this head are to be referred many expressions where the ablative expresses that *in accordance with which* anything is or is done. But as the Romans had no such categories as we make, it is impossible to classify all uses of the ablative. Hence the ablative of *specification* is closely akin to that of *manner*, and to many ablatives which have been developed from other fundamental ideas. Thus, —

meō iūre, with perfect right; but, *meō modō*, in my fashion.

meā sententiā, in my opinion; but also more formally, *ex meā sententiā*.

[Here the sense is the same, but the first ablative is *specification*; the second, *source*.]

propinquitāte coniūctōs atque *nātūrā* (Laelius 50), *closely allied by kindred and nature.* [Here the ablative is not different in sense from those above, but no doubt is a development of *means*.]

quī vincit viribus (Laelius 55), *who surpasses in strength.* [Here it is impossible to tell whether *viribus* is the *means* of the superiority or that *in respect to which* one is superior.]

neque enim illā aliā condiciōne bella gesserunt (B. G. vii. 77), *for on no other terms did they carry on wars.*

a. The Supine in -ū, used chiefly with adjectives, is equivalent to an ablative of specification (cf. §§ 114. b, 303): as, —

mirābile dictū, marvellous to tell.

NOTE. — In this use of the supine, dative and ablative constructions have, no

13. Ablative of Place.

NOTE.—The *Locative Case* was originally used (literally) to denote the *place where* and (figuratively) to denote the *time when* (a development from the idea of place). But this case was preserved only in names of towns and a few other words, and the *place where* is usually denoted by the Ablative. In this construction the Ablative was, no doubt, used at first without a preposition, but afterwards it became associated with *in* in most cases.

254. The Ablative is used to denote the *place where* (usually with the preposition *in*, § 258. c).

a The ablative of the *place where* is retained in many idiomatic expressions (cf. § 259. a) which have lost the idea of place: as,—

pendēmus animis (Tusc. i. 96), *we are in suspense of mind* (in our minds).

socius periculū vobiscum aderō (Jug. 85), *I will be present with you, a companion in dangers.*

permit altum corde dolorem (Æn. i. 209), *he keeps down the pain deep in his heart.*

b. 1. Several verbs are followed by the locative ablative. These are: *acquiescō, dēlector, laetor, gaudeō, glōrior, nitor, stō, maneo, fidō* (*cōnfidō*), *cōsistō, contineor*. For dat. with (*cōn*)*fidō*, see § 227.

nōminibus veterum glōriantur (Orat. 169), *they glory in the names of the ancients.* [Also, *dē divitiis* (in *virtūte, circā rem, aliquid, haec*) *glōriari*.]

spē niti (Att. iii. 9), *to rely on hope.*

prudentiā fidēs (Off. i. 81), *trusting in prudence.*

2. The verbals *frētus, contentus, and laetus* take the locative ablative: as,—

frētus grātiā Brūtī (Att. v. 21), *relying on the favor of Brutus.*

laetus praedā, rejoicing in the booty.

contentus sorte, content with his lot. [Possibly abl. of cause.]

REMARK.—The ablative with the above verbs sometimes takes the preposition *in* (but *fidō in* is late): as,—

in quibus causa nititur (Cael. 25), *on whom the case depends.*

With several of these verbs the neuter accusative of pronouns is often found.

14. Ablative Absolute.

255. A noun or pronoun, with a participle,¹ may be put in the ablative, to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action: as,—

¹ In this construction the noun was originally in the Locative Case, and denoted *circumstance* considered as *place* or *time*. Afterwards a participle was added to modify the noun, and the two words became fused in a single idea equivalent to that contained in a subordinate clause (cf. *ab urbe conditā, from the founding of the city, lit. from the founded city*). After the construction was established, other ablatives not locative no doubt became confounded with the real ablatives absolute.

vocātis ad sē undique mercātōribus (B. G. iv. 20), *having called to him the traders from all quarters* (traders having been called.).

quibus rēbus cōgnitis Caesar apud milites cōtīnātur (B. C. i. 7), *having learned this, Caesar makes a speech to the soldiers.*

ac si illō sublātō depelli ā vōbis omne periculum iudicārem (Catil. ii. 3), *and if I thought that with his removal (he being removed) all danger, etc.*

nōdum hieme cōfectā (B. G. vi. 3), *the winter not yet over.*

compressi cōnātūs nullō tumultū publicē concitātō (Catil. i. 11), *the attempts were put down without exciting any general alarm.*

nē vōbis quidem omnibus rē etiam tum probātā (Catil. ii. 4), *since at that time the facts were not yet proved even to all of you.*

imprudentibus nostris atque occupātis in mūnitione castrōrum (B. G. v. 19), *while our men were off their guard and busy in the fortification of the camp.*

fugātō omni equitātū (B. G. vii. 68), *all the cavalry being put to flight.*

interfectō Indutiōmarō (B. G. vi. 2), *upon the death of Indutiomarus.*

a. An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the Ablative Absolute construction: ¹ as, —

exiguā parte aestātis reliquā (B. G. iv. 20), *when but a small part of the summer was left* (a small part of the summer remaining).

M. Messalā et M. Pisōne cōsulibus (id. i. 2), *in the consulship of Messala and Piso* (Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso being consuls). [The regular way of expressing dates, see § 259. e.]

b. A phrase or clause, used substantively, sometimes occurs as ablative absolute with a participle or an adjective: as, —

incertō quid peterent (Liv. xxviii. 36), *as it was uncertain what they should aim at* (it being uncertain, etc.).

comperitō vānum esse formidinem (Tac. Ann. i. 66), *when it was found that the alarm was groundless.*

NOTE. — This construction belongs to later Latin.

c. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used adverbially in the ablative absolute without a substantive: as, —

cōsultō et cōgitātō (Off. i. 27), *on purpose and with reflection* (the matter having been deliberated and thought on).

serēnō (Liv. xxxi. 12), *under a clear sky* (it [being] clear).

nec auspiciātō nec litātō (Liv. v. 38), *with no auspices or favorable sacrifice.*

tranquillō, ut aiunt, quilibet gubernātor est (Sen. Ep. 85, 29), *in good weather, as they say, any man's a pilot.*

¹ The participle of *esse*, wanting in Latin (§ 119. a), is used in Sanskrit and Greek as in English.

d. The Ablative Absolute in its developed form often takes the place of a Subordinate Clause. In such cases the noun is equivalent to a subject, and the other word to the predicate. So may be replaced:—

1. Temporal clauses (§ 322. ff.): as,—

patre interfectō, [his] *father having been killed*. [This corresponds to *cum pater interfectus esset*, *when his father had been killed*.]
recentibus sceleris eius vestigiis (Q. C. vii. 1. 1), *while the traces of the crime were fresh*. [Cf. *cum recentia sunt vestigia*.]

2. Causal clauses (§ 321): as,—

at ei qui Alesiae obsidebantur praeteritā diē quā auxilia suorum expectaverant, cōsumptō omni frūmentō, conciliō coactō cōsultābant (B. G. vii. 77), *but those who were under siege at Alesia since the time, etc., had expired, and their grain had been exhausted, calling a council (see § below), consulted together*. [Cf. *cum diēs praeteriisset*, etc.]

Alexander, dēspērātā pāce, ad reparandās virēs intendit animum (Q. C. iv. 6, 1), *Alexander, since he despaired of peace, devoted his energies to recruiting his forces*. [Cf. *cum pacem dēspērāret*.]

3. Concessive clauses (§ 313): as,—

at eō repugnante fiebat (cōsul), immō vērō eō fiebat magis (Milon. 34), *but though he (Clodius) opposed, he (Milo) was likely to be elected consul; nay, rather, etc.*

4. Conditional clauses (§ 304): as,—

occurrēbat ei, mancam et dēbilem praetūrā futūrā suā, cōsule Milōne (Milon. 25), *it occurred to him that his praetorship would be maimed and feeble, if Milo were consul*. [Cf. *si Milō cōsul esset*.]
quā (regiōne) subactā licēbit dēcurrere in illud mare (Q. C. ix. 3), *if this region is subdued, we shall be free to run-down into that sea*.
quā quidem distrāctā (Archias 28), *if this be taken away*.

5. Clauses of accompanying circumstance: as,—

ego haec ā Chrysogonō meā sponte, remōtō Sex. Rosciō, quaerō (Ros. A. 130), *of my own accord, without reference to Sextus Roscius (S. R. being put aside), I ask these questions of Chrysogonus*.
nec imperante nec sciente nec praesente dominō (Milon. 29), *without their master's giving orders, or knowing it, or being present*.

NOTE.—As the English case absolute (the nominative) is far less common than the ablative absolute in Latin, a change of form is generally required in translation. Thus the present participle is oftenest to be rendered by a relative clause with *when* or *while*; and the perfect passive participle by the perfect active participle in English. These changes may be seen in the following example:—

"At illi, *intermissō spatiō, imprudentibus nostris, atque occupatis in munitiōne castrōrum, subito sē ex silvis eiecerunt; impetūque in eos factō, qui erant in statione prō castris collocati, acriter pugnāverunt; duābusque missis subsidio cohortibus ā Caesare, cum hae (perexiguō intermissō loci spatiō inter sē) cōstitissent, novō genere pugnæ perterritis nostris, per mediōs audācissimē perrūperunt, sēque inde incolumēs recepērunt.*" — CÆSAR, B. G. v. 15.

"But they, *having paused a space, while our men were unaware and busied in fortifying the camp, suddenly threw themselves out of the woods; then making an attack upon those who were on guard in front of the camp, they fought fiercely; and, though two cohorts had been sent by Cæsar as reinforcements, after these had taken their position (leaving very little space of ground between them), as our men were alarmed by the strange kind of fighting, they dashed most daringly through the midst of them, and got off safe.*"

[For the Ablative with Prepositions, see § 152.]

VI.—TIME AND PLACE.

1. Time.

256. Time *when*, or *within which*, is put in the Ablative; time *how long* in the Accusative: as,—

1. Ablative:—

cōstitutā diē, *on the appointed day*; primā luce, *at daybreak*.
 quotā hōrā, *at what o'clock?* tertiā vigiliā, *in the third watch*.
 tribus proximis annis (Jug. 11), *within the last three years*.

2. Accusative:—

diēs continuōs trigintā, *for thirty days together*.
 cum triduum iter fecisset (B. G. ii. 16), *when he had marched three days*.

NOTE.—The ablative of time is *locative* in its origin (§ 254. head-note); the accusative is the same as that of the *extent of space* (§ 257).

a. The Ablative of time *within which* sometimes takes in, and the Accusative of time *how long*, *per* for greater precision: as,—

in diēbus proximis decem (Sall.), *within the next ten days*.
 in brevi spatiō (Ov. Met. i. 411), *within a brief space (of time)*.
 lūdi per decem diēs (Cat. iii. 20), *games for ten days*.

b. Duration of time is occasionally expressed by the Ablative: as,—
 milites quinque hōris proelium sustinuerant (B. C. i. 47), *the men had sustained the fight five hours*.

NOTE.—In this use the period of time is regarded as that *within which* the act is done, and it is only implied that the act lasted *through* the period.

2. Space.

257. Extent of space is put in the Accusative: as,—

fossas quindecim pedēs lātās (B. G. vii. 72), *trenches fifteen feet broad.*

in omni vita sua quemque a recta cōscientia trānsversum unguem nōn oportet discedere (quoted in Att. xiii. 20), *in all one's life, one should not depart a nail's breadth from straightforward conscience*

NOTE.—This Accusative denotes the object *through* or *over which* the action takes place, and is kindred with the Accusative of the End of Motion (cf. § 258).

a. Measure is often expressed by the Genitive of Quality (§ 215. b):
as, —

vallō pedum duōdecim (B. G. ii. 30), *in a rampart of twelve feet (in height).*

b. Distance when considered as *extent of space* is put in the Accusative; when considered as *degree of difference*, in the Ablative (§ 250): as, —

quinque diērum iter abest (Liv. xxx. 29), *it is distant five days' march.*

trigintā mīlibus passuum infrā eum locum (B. G. vi. 35), *thirty miles below that place (below by thirty miles).*

3. Place from Which and End of Motion.

258. The *place from which*¹ is denoted by the Ablative with *ab*, *dē*, or *ex*; the *place to which* (the End of Motion) by the Accusative with *ad* or *in*: as, —

1. Place from which: —

ā septentrīōne, *from the north.*

cum ā vōbis discēssērō (Cat. Maj. 79), *when I leave you.*

dē prōvinciā dēcedere, *to come away from one's province.*

dē monte, *down from the mountain.*

negōtiātor ex Āfricā (Ver. ii. 1. 14), *a merchant from Africa.*

influxit ē Græciā rivulus (Rep. ii. 34), *there flowed in a rill from Greece.*

ex Britannīā obsidēs misērunt (B. G. iv. 38), *they sent hostages from Britain.*

Mōsa prōfluit ex monte Vosegō (id. iv. 10), *the Meuse (flows from) rises in the Vosges mountains.*

quās (nāvis) ex Pictonibus et Santonīs reliquisque pācātis regiōnibus convenire iusserat (id. iii. 11), *the ships which he had given orders should collect from the [country of the] Pictones and the Santoni and from the other conquered regions.*

¹ Originally all these relations were expressed with all these words by the cases alone. The accusative denoted the end of motion as in a certain sense the object of the action (cf. *Rōmam petit*), and the ablative in its proper meaning of separation denoted the place from which. The prepositions, originally adverbs, were added to define more exactly the direction of motion, as in *to us ward, toward us* and by long association became indispensable except as indicated above.

2. Place to which:—

ad finēs Hyrcaniae penetrat (Q. C. vi. 4), *he penetrates to the borders of Hyrcania.*

adibam ad istum fundum (Cæc. 82), *I was going to that estate* (cf. § 237. d).
in Africam navigavit, *he sailed to Africa.*

in Italiam profectus, *gone to Italy.*

legatum in Treveros mittit (B. G. iii. 11), *he sends his lieutenant into the [country of the] Treveri.*

in Piræa cum exissem (Att. vi. 9, 1), *when I had landed at the Piræus.*

[Admitted by Cicero himself to be wrong, the Piræus being a town (see *b*, below). The passage is discussed by him in Att. vii. 3.]

NOTE 1.—In poetry the end of motion is often expressed by the Dative (§ 205. *b*, 3): *as*,—

it clamor caelō (Æn. v. 451), *a shout goes up to the sky.*

NOTE 2.—With the name of a country *ad* denotes *to the borders*; *in*, *into* the country itself. Similarly *ab* denotes *away from the outside*, *ex*, *out of the interior*. Thus *ad Italiam pervēnit* would mean, *he came to the frontier*, regardless of the destination; *in Italiam*, *he went to Italy*, i.e. to a place within it, to Rome, for instance. So *ab Italiā profectus est* would mean, *he came away from the frontier*, regardless of the original starting-point *ex Italiā*, *he came from Italy*, from within, as from Rome, for instance.

a. The names of towns or small islands *from which*, as also *domus* and *rūs*, are put in the Ablative without a preposition: *as*,—

Rōmā profectus, *having set out from Rome.*

rūre reversus, *having returned from the country.*

Rōmā abesse, *to be absent from Rome.*

domō abire, *to leave home.*

NOTE 1.—With names of towns, etc., *ab* is often used, commonly to denote *from the vicinity of*: *as*,—

ut ā Mutinā discēderet (Phil. xiv. 4), *that he should retire from Mutina* (which he was besieging).

erat ā Gergoviā dēspectus in castra (B. G. vii. 45), *there was from about G. a view into the camp.*

profecti ā domō (Liv. xl. 33), *setting out from home.*

loca quæ ā Brundisiū propius abant (Att. viii. 14), *places which are nearer to Brundisium* (nearer from).

NOTE 2.—The ablative without a preposition is used to denote *the place from which* in certain idiomatic expressions: *as*,—

cēssissēt patriā (Mil. 68), *he would have left his country.*

patriā pellere, *to drive out of the country.*

manū mittere, *to emancipate* (let go from the hand).

NOTE 3.—The poets often omit the preposition where it would be required in prose: *as*,—

mānis Acheronte remissōs (Æn. v. 99), *the spirits returned from Acheron.*

b. The names of towns or small islands *to which* as also *domus* and *rūs*, are put in the Accusative without a preposition: *as*, —

Rōmam rediit, he returned to Rome.

Dēlō Rhodum nāvigāre, to sail from Delos to Rhodes.

rūs ibō, I shall go into the country.

domum iit, he went home. [So, *suās domōs abire, to go to their homes.*]

NOTE 1. — In this use *domum* may be modified by a possessive pronoun or a genitive. When otherwise modified, *domum* requires the preposition *in*. Thus, —

domum rēgis (Dei. 17), *to the king's house.* [But also in *M. Laecae*

domum (Cat. i. 8), *to M. Leca's house.*] But, —

in domum māgnam venire, to come into a large house.

NOTE 2. — With the names of towns, etc., *ad* may be used in the sense of *towards*, *to the neighborhood of*: *as*, —

ad Alesiam proficiscuntur (B. G. vii. 76), *they set out for Alesia.*

ad Alesiam perveniunt (id. vii. 79), *they arrive at Alesia* (come through to).

ad Athēnās nāvigāre, to set sail for Athens (landing in the harbor).

NOTE 3. — The general words, *urbs*, *oppidum*, *insula* require a preposition in either construction (*to which* or *from which*): *as*, *ad urbem*, *ab urbe*, *ad urbem Rōmam*, *Rōmam ad urbem*, *ex urbe Rōmā.* . .

NOTE 4. — Two or more nouns are sometimes expressed after one verb as limits of motion (see § 259. 4).

NOTE 5. — The poets often omit the preposition with any noun: *as*, —

Ītaliā Lāviniaque vēnit litora (Æn. i. 2), *he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores.*

finis Ītalōs mittēre (id. iii. 440), *you shall be allowed to reach the Italian boundaries.*

terram Hesperiam veniēs (id. ii. 781), *you shall come to the Hesperian land.*

REMARK. — The preposition is omitted with the supine in *-um* (§ 302) and in the following old phrases: —

exsequiās ire, to go to the funeral.

infitiās ire, to resort to denial.

pessum ire, to go to ruin.

pessum dare, to ruin (cf. *perdō*).

vēnum dare, to sell (give to sale). [Hence *vēndere*.]

vēnum ire, to be sold (go to sale). [Hence *vēnīre*.]

forās (used as adverb), *out*: *as*, *forās egredi, to go out of doors.*

4. The Place Where.

c. 1. The *place where* is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition *in* (*Locative Ablative*): *as*, —

in hāc urbe vitam dēgit, he passed his life in this city.

sī in Galliā remanērent (B. G. iv. 8), *if they should stay in Gaul.*

dum haec in Venetiis geruntur (id. iii. 17), *while this was going on among the Veneti.*

oppidum in insulā positum (id. vii. 58), *a town situated on an island.*

2. But names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case.

This has in the first and the second declension singular the same form as the Genitive, in the plural and in the third declension the same form as the Dative or Ablative: as, —

Rōmæ, at Rome (Rōma).

Rhodī, at Rhodes (Rhodus).

Samī, at Samos.

Tiburi or Tibure, at Tibur

Philippis, at Philippi.

Athēnīs, at Athens (Athēnæ).

Lanuvī, at Lanuvium.

Cypri, at Cyprus.

Cū-ibus, at Cures.

Capreis, at Capri (Capreae).

REMARK. — Large islands, and all places when thought of as a *territory* and not as a *locality* are treated like names of countries: as, —

in Siciliā, in Sicily.

in Ithacā leporēs illātī moriuntur (Plin. H. N., cf. § 256. a), in Ithaca hares when carried there die. [Ulysses lived at Ithaca, would require Ithacæ.]

NOTE 1. — With all names of places *AT*, meaning *near* (not *in*), is expressed by *ad* or *apud* with the Accusative. *In the neighborhood of* may be expressed by *circā* with the Accusative; *among*, by *apud* with the Accusative. Thus, —

pūgna ad Cannās, the fight at Cannæ.

conchās ad Cūietam legunt (De Or. ii. 22), at Caieta (along the shore).

ad (apud) inferōs, in the world below (near or among those below).

ad forēs, at the doors.

ad iānuam, at the door.

apud Graecōs, among the Greeks.

apud mē, at my house.

apud Solōs (Leg. ii. 41), at Soli.

circā Capuam, round about Capua.

NOTE 2. — In citing an *author*, *apud* is regularly used; in citing a particular *work*, *in*. Thus, —

apud Xenophōntem, in Xenophon. But, —

in Xenophōntis Oeconomicō, in Xenophon's *Oeconomicus*.

d. The Locative Case is also preserved in the following common nouns: —

domī (rarely domū), at home.

bellī, militiæ (in contrast to domī), abroad, in military service.

humī, on the ground.

rūrī, in the country.

foris, out-of-doors.

terrā marique, by land and sea.

These are used like names of towns, without a preposition. So also, —

herī (-e), yesterday.

vesperī (-e), in the evening.

infelici arborī (Liv. i. 26), on the ill-omened tree.

e. The locative *domi* may be modified by a possessive adjective or a limiting genitive; but, when it would be otherwise modified some other construction is used instead of the Locative. Thus, —

domi Caesaris, at *Cæsar's house*.

domi suae vel alienae, at *his own or another's house*. But, —

in *Marci Crassi castissimâ domo* (Cælius 9), in the chaste home of *Marcus Crassus*. [Cf. ex *Anniânâ Milōnis domo*, § 184. d.]

f. The *place where* is denoted by the Ablative without a preposition in several constructions: —

1 Regularly in many indefinite words, such as *locō*, *parte* as, —

quibus locō positis (De Or. iii. 153), when these are set in position.

quâ parte victi erant (Att. ix. 11), on the side where they were beaten. But,

exercitum castris continuit (B. G. i. 48), he kept his army in camp. [Here the construction is influenced by means.]

2 Frequently with nouns which are qualified by adjectives (regularly when *tōtus* is used): as, —

media urbe (Liv. i. 33), in the middle of the city

tōtâ Siciliâ (Verr. iv. 51), throughout Sicily (in the whole of Sicily). So, —

tōtâ Tarracinâ (De Or. ii. 240), in all Tarracina (cf. c. 2. Rem.).

3. Freely in poetry: as, —

litore curvō (Æn. iii. 16), on the winding shore.

antrō sēclūsa relinquit (id. iii. 446), she leaves them shut up in the cave.

Ēpirō, Hesperia (id. iii. 503), in *Ēpirus*, in *Hesperia*.

g. The *way by which* is put in the ablative without a preposition: as, —

viâ breviorē equitēs præmisi (Fam. x. 9), I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road.

Aegæō mari trâiecit (Liv. xxxvii. 14), he crossed by way of the *Ægean Sea*

prōvehimur pelagō (Æn. iii. 506), we sail forth over the sea.

NOTE. — In this use the *way by which* is conceived as the means of passage.

A. Special Uses of Time and Place

259. The following special uses require to be observed: —

a. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of *time when* where in English the main idea is rather of *place* as, —

pugnâ Cannēnsi (or *apud Cannas*), in the fight at *Cannæ*.

ludiis Rōmānis, at the *Roman games*.

omnibus Gallicis bellis, in all the *Gallie wars*

b. In many idiomatic expressions of time, the accusative with *ad*, *in*, or *sub* is used. Such are the following: —

supplicatio decreta est in Kalendas Ianuarias, *a thanksgiving was voted for the 1st of January.*

convenerunt ad diem, *they assembled at the [appointed] day.*

ad vesperum, *till evening*; sub vesperum, *towards evening.*

sub idem tempus, *about the same time*

sub noctem, *at night-fall.*

c. Time *during which* or *within which* may be expressed by the acc. or abl. of a noun in the singular, with an ordinal numeral: as, —

quinto die, *within [just] four days* (lit., on the fifth day). [The Romans counted both ends, see § 376. *d.*]

regnat iam sextum annum, *he has reigned going on six years* (he is reigning now the sixth year).

But also, — regnavit iam sex annos, *he has already reigned for six years.*

d. Distance of time *before* or *after* anything is variously expressed: as, —

post (ante) tres annos, post tertium annum, tres post annos, tertium post annum, tribus post annis, tertio post anno (§ 250), *three years after.*

tribus annis (tertio anno) post exilium (postquam eiectus est), *three years after his exile.*

his tribus proximis annis, *within the last three years*

paucis annis, *a few years hence.*

abhinc annos tres (tribus annis), ante hos tres annos, *three years ago.*

triennium est cum (tres anni sunt cum), *it is three years since.*

octavo mense quam (see § 262. note 2), *the eighth month after.*

e. In Dates the phrase *ante diem* (*a. d.*) with an ordinal, or the ordinal alone, is followed by an accusative, like a preposition; and the phrase itself may also be governed by a preposition.

The year is expressed by the names of the consuls in the ablative absolute, often without a conjunction (§ 255. *a.*): as, —

is dies erat a. d. quintum Kalendas Aprilis L. Pisone A. Gabinio consulibus (B. G. i. 6), *that day was the 5th before the calends of April (March 28), in the consulship of Piso and Gabinius.*

in a. d. v. Kal. Nov. (Cat. i. 7), *to the 5th day before the calends of November (Oct. 28).*

xv Kal. Sextilis, *the 15th day before the calends of August (July 18)* [Full form: quinto decimo die ante Kalendas.]

f. For *AT*, meaning *near* (not *in*). see § 258. *c.* note 1.

NOTE. — For *TO* and *FROM* with names of places, see § 258.

g. When *motion* to a place is implied in English, though not expressed, the accusative with or without a preposition must be used in Latin: as, —

coniūrāti in cūriam convēnērunt, *the conspirators met in the Senate-house, (came together into the Senate-house).*

concilium domum suam convocāvit, *he called a council at his own house.*

h. When two or more names of place follow a verb of motion, each must be under its own construction. Thus, —

quadriduō quō haec gesta sunt rēs ad Chrȳsogonum in castra L. Sullae Volāterrās dēscrtur (Rosc. A. 20), *within four days after this was done, the matter was reported to Chrysogonus in Sulla's camp at Volaterra.*

VII.—USE OF PREPOSITIONS.

260. Some Prepositions are used with the Accusative, some with the Ablative,¹ and a few with both.

NOTE.—For the list of Prepositions, see § 152.

a. Verbs of *placing*, though implying motion, take the construction of the place *in which*.

Such are: pōnō and its compounds (except impōnō), locō, collocō, statuō, cōstituō, etc.

qui in aēde sē domō collocāvit (Paradox. 25), *who put [one] into his place and home.*

statuitur eques Rōmānus in Aprōnī convīviō (Verr. iii. 62), *a Roman knight is brought into a banquet of Apronius.*

insula Dēlos in Aegaeō mari posita (Leg. Man. 55), *the island of Delos, situated in the Aegean Sea.*

si in ūnō Pompēiō omnia pōnerētis (id. 59), *if you made everything depend on Pompey alone.*

b. Position is frequently expressed by the Ablative with ab (rarely ex), properly meaning *from*:² as, —

ā tergō, *in the rear.*

ā parte Pompēianā, *on the side of Pompey.*

ā sinistrā, *on the left hand.* [Cf. hinc, *on this side.*]

ex alterā parte, *on the other side.*

māgnā ex parte, *in a great degree (from, i.e. in, a great part).*

¹ The force lies strictly with the Case, and the preposition only indicates more clearly *direction* or *place*.

² Apparently the direction whence the sensuous impression comes.

c. Super in the sense of *concerning* takes the Ablative; in all other senses it takes the Accusative: as, —

hāc super rē (Cic.), *concerning this thing*.

super tāli causā missi (Nep. Paus. 4), *sent on such an errand*.

sed hāc rē super nimis (Att. x. 8), *but more than enough on that point*.

super culmina tēcti (Æn. ii. 695), *above the house-top*.

super vallum praecipitārī (Jug. 58), *to be hurled over the rampart*.

super laterēs cōria inducuntur (B. C. ii. 10), *bricks are drawn over the bricks*.

super Numidiam (Jug. 19), *beyond Numidia*.

super terrae tumulum (Iegg. ii. 66), *on the mound of earth*.

super vinum (Q. C. viii. 4), *over [his] win.*

NOTE. — The ablative is used in poetry with **super** in other senses: as, —

ligna super focū largē repōnēns (Hor. Od. i. 9. 5), *piling logs generously on the fire*.

nocte super mediā (Æn. ix. 61), *after midnight*.

d. Subter takes the Accusative, except sometimes in poetry. Thus, —

subter togam (Liv.), *under his mantle*. But, —

subter litore (Catull.), *below the shore*.

e. Tenus (which follows its noun) regularly takes the Ablative, but sometimes the Genitive (§ 223. e). Thus, —

Taurō tenus (Deiot. 36), *as far as Taurus*.

capulō tenus (Æn. ii. 553), *up to the hilt*.

Corcyrae tenus (Liv. xxv. 24), *as far as Corcyra*.

NOTE. — **Tenus** is frequently connected with the feminine of an adjective pronoun, making an adverbial phrase: as, —

hāctenus, *hitherto*; *quātenus*, *so far as*.

dē hāc rē hāctenus, *so much for that* (about this matter so far).

261. Many words may be construed either as Prepositions or as Adverbs: thus, —

a. The adverbs *prīdiē*, *postrīdiē*, *propius*, *proximē*,¹ *usque* — also (less frequently) the adjectives *propior* and *proximus* — may be followed by the Accusative (cf. §§ 207. b, 234. e): as, —

prīdiē Nōnās Iūniās (Cic.), *the day before the Nones of June* (June 4).

postrīdiē lūdōs (Att. xvi. 4), *the day after the games*.

ipse propior montem suōs collocat (Jug. 49), *he stations his men nearer the hill*.

proximē Pompēium sedēbam (Att. i. 14), *I sat next to Pompey*. [Cf. *proximus Pompēium sedēbam*.]

¹ Cf. *prope*, § 152. a.

pars insulae quae est propius sōlis occāsum (B. G. iv. 28), *the part of the island which is nearer the west* (sunset).
terminōs usque Libyae (Just.), *to the bounds of Libya*.

NOTE.—*Pridiō* and *postridiō* take also the Genitive (§ 223. c. note 2).
Propior, *propius*, *proximus*, and *proximē*, take also the Dative, or the Ablative with *ab*. *Usque* is commonly followed by *ad*. Thus,—

propius Tiberi (Nep.), *nearer the Tiber*.
propius ab urbe (Plin.), *nearer the city*.
usque ad mare, *to the sea*.

b. The adverbs *palam*, *procul*, *simul*, may be used as prepositions and take the ablative (so perhaps *intus*, § 153, note) : as,—

rem crēditōri palam populō solvit (Liv. vi. 14), *he paid the debt in the presence of the people*.
haud procul castris in modum mūicipiī exstrūcta (Tac. H. iv. 22), *not far from the camp, built up like a town*.
simul nobis habitat barbarus (Ov. Tr. v. 10. 29), *close among us dwells the barbarian*.

NOTE.—But *simul* regularly takes *cum*; *procul* is usually followed by *ab* in classic use; and the use of *palam* as a preposition is comparatively late. Thus,—

procul ā mari, *far from the sea*.
nōbiscum simul, *at the same time with ourselves*.

c. The adverb *clam* is found with the Accusative or Ablative, rarely with the Genitive or Dative : as,—

clam mātrem suam (Plaut.), *unknown to his mother*.
clam mihi (id.), *in secret from me*.
clam patris (id.), *without his father's knowledge*.
clam vōbis (B. C. ii. 32), *without your knowledge*.

d. Prepositions often retain their original meaning as adverbs. So especially—

1. *Ante* and *post* in relations of time : as,—

quae paulō ante praecepta dedimus (Cic.), *a little while ago*, etc.
post tribus diēbus, *three days after* (cf. § 259. d).

2. *Adversus*, *contrā*, *circiter*, *prope* : as,—

adversus resistere, *to hold out in opposition*.
Aeolus haec contrā, *thus Aeolus in reply*.
circiter pars quārta, *about the fourth part*.
prope exanimātus, *nearly lifeless*.

3. In general those ending in *-ā* : as,—

forte fuit iūxtā tumulus, *there happened to be a mound close by*.

NOTE.—*Clam* and *versus* are by many excluded from the list of prepositions, [For the use of Prepositions in Composition, see § 170.]

262. Some prepositions or adverbs which imply Comparison are followed, like comparatives, by *quam*, which may be separated by several words, or even clauses.

neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit (Liv. xxxix. 10), *nor did he let him go until he gave a pledge.*

post diem tertium quam dixerat (Mil. 44), *the third day after he said it.*

NOTE 1.—Such words are *ante*, *prius*, *post*, *pridie*, *postridie*; also *magis* and *prae* in compounds: as,—

Catō ipse iam servire quam pugnāre mēvult (Att. vii. 15), *Cato himself by this time would rather be a slave than fight.*

sī iam principātum Galliae obtinere nōn possint, Gallōrum quam Rōmānōrum imperia praeferre (B. G. i. 17), *if they can no longer hold the chief rank in Gaul, [they] prefer the rule of Gauls to that of Romans.*

NOTE 2.—The ablative of time (§ 256) is sometimes followed by *quam* in the same way: as,—

octāvō mēse quam (Liv. xxi. 15), *within eight months after, etc.*

263. For *a* or *ab* with the Ablative of Agent, see § 246.

NOTE.—The following prepositions sometimes follow their nouns: *ad*, *citrā*, *circā*, *contrā*, *dē*, *ē* (*ex*), *inter*, *iuxtā*, *penes*, *propter*, *ultrā*, *tenus* (regularly), and occasionally others: as,—

[*ūsus*] *quem penes arbitrium est et iūs et nōrma loquendī* (Hor. A. P. 72), *custom, under whose control is the choice, right, and rule of speech.*

cūius ā me corpus est cremātum, quod contrā decuit ab illō meum (C. M. 84), *whose body I burned [on the funeral pile], while on the contrary (lit. contrary to which) mine should have been burned by him.*

CHAPTER III.—Syntax of the Verb.

I.—MOODS AND TENSES.

NOTE.—The Syntax of the Verb relates chiefly to the use of the Moods (expressing the *manner* in which the action is conceived) and the Tenses (expressing the *time* of the action). There is no difference in origin between mood and tense. The moods, except the infinitive, are only specialized tenses; and hence the uses of mood and tense frequently cross each other. Thus the tenses sometimes have modal significations (compare indicative in apodosis, § 311. c; future for imperative, § 269. f); and the moods sometimes express time (compare subjunctive in future conditions, § 307. b, and notice the want of a future subjunctive § 110. a).

The parent language, besides the Imperative mood, had two distinct forms with modal signification: the Subjunctive, expressing an action as *willed* or *vividly conceived*; and the Optative, expressing an action as *wished for* or *vaguely conceived*.

Of these, the Subjunctive was developed from a Present Tense, by which an action continued in present time was represented as future: compare in English, *the army marches to-morrow*. Such an action came to be conceived on the one hand as command: compare the military order, *the regiment will advance*; and on the other as a possibility or a mere conception: compare *anybody will understand that*.

The Optative has had a similar development. It was originally a tense-form compounded with YA, and probably denoted past time (cf. Eng. *should* and *would*); but like the subjunctive, it has acquired the two meanings of *conception* and *command*.

It must not be supposed, however, that in any given construction either the subjunctive or the optative was deliberately used *because* it denoted conception or possibility. On the contrary, each construction has had its own line of development from more tangible and literal forms of thought to more vague and ideal; and by this process the mood used comes to have in each case a special meaning, which is afterwards habitually associated with it in that construction. Thus in English the expression *I would do this* has become equivalent to a mild command; while by analysis it is seen to be the apodosis of a present condition contrary to fact (§ 308): *if I were you*, etc. By further analysis, *I would go* is seen to have meant, originally, *I should have wished* (or *I did wish*) *to go*.

In Latin, the original subjunctive and the optative became confounded in form and meaning, and were merged in the present subjunctive. Then new tense-forms of the subjunctive were formed by composition;¹ and to these the original as well as the derived meanings of both moods became attached (see § 265). All the *independent* uses of the Latin subjunctive are thus to be accounted for.

The *dependent* uses of the subjunctive have arisen in every case from the employment of some *independent* subjunctive construction in co-ordination with a main statement. In time the two clauses have so grown together as to form a single

¹ For the signification of these tense-endings, see pp. 120, 122.

compound sentence, and the subjunctive member is felt to have assumed subordinate relations toward the other clause. The original meaning of the mood has disappeared, and a new meaning has arisen by implication. Thus, *misit legatos qui dicerent, he sent ambassadors to say* (i.e. who *would say* in a supposed case).¹ Similar processes may be seen in the growth of *Apodosis*. Thus, *tolle hanc opinionem, luctum sustuleris* (remove this notion, you will have done away with grief: i.e. *if you remove*, etc.).

The infinitive is originally a verbal noun, modifying a verb like other nouns: *volō vidēre*, lit. "I wish for-seeing": compare English *what went ye out for to see?* But in Latin it has been surprisingly developed, so as to have forms for tense, and some proper modal characteristics, and to be used as a substitute for other moods.

The other noun and adjective forms of the verb have been developed in various ways, which are treated under their respective heads below.

The proper verbal constructions may be thus classified:—

1. INDICATIVE: Direct Assertion or Question (§ 264).
 - a. Independent: { Wish, Exhortation, Command, Question (§ 265. a).
2. SUBJUNCTIVE: {
 1. Purpose (with *ut, nē*) (§ 317).
 2. Result (with *ut, ut nōn*) (§ 319).
 3. Characteristic (Relative Clause) (§ 320).
 4. Time (with *cum*) (§ 325).
 5. Conditions { Future (less vivid) (§ 307. b, c).
 - { Contrary to Fact (§ 308).
 6. Intermediate (Indirect Discourse) (§ 341).
 7. Indirect Questions or Commands (§§ 334, 339).
3. IMPERATIVE: {
 1. Direct Commands (often subjunctive) (§ 269).
 2. Statutes, Laws, and Wills (§ 269. d).
 3. Prohibitions (early or poetic use) (§ 269. note).
4. INFINITIVE: {
 - a. Subject of *esse* and Impersonal verbs (§ 270).
 - b. Objective {
 1. Complementary Infinitive (§ 271).
 2. Indirect Discourse (with subject-accusative) (§ 272).
 - c. Idiomatic Uses: {
 1. Purpose (poetic or Greek use) (§ 273).
 2. Exclamation (with subject-accusative) (§ 274).
 3. Historical Infinitive (§ 275).

I.—MOODS.

1. THE INDICATIVE.

264. The Indicative is the mood of direct assertions or questions when there is no modification of the verbal idea except that of time.

a. The Tenses of the Indicative generally denote time, as *present*, *past*, or *future*, with reference to the speaker (§ 276 ff.).

¹ Compare note on the development of *optative* from *paradeigma*, p. 264.

NOTE.—Time thus denoted is often called *absolute time*. See uses of temporal clauses, § 323.

b. The Indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the Subjunctive: as,—

longum est, *it would be tedious* [if, etc.].

satius erat, *it would have been better* [if, etc.].

persequi possum, *I might follow up* [in detail].

c. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the Imperative (§ 269. f).

d. The Indicative is used in some kinds of conditions (see §§ 306, 308).

e. The place of the indicative in narration is sometimes supplied by the Historical Infinitive (§ 275).

f. In Indirect Discourse a narrative clause has its verb in the Infinitive (see §§ 272, 336).

II. THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

265. The Subjunctive in general expresses the verbal idea with some modification¹ such as is expressed in English by auxiliaries, by the infinitive, or by the rare subjunctive (§ 112. b).

The uses of the subjunctive are *independent* or *dependent* (cf. head-note, p. 274).

a. The Subjunctive is used *independently* to express —

1. An Exhortation, Concession, or Command (*Hortatory*, § 266).

2. A Wish (*Optative*, § 267).

3. A Question of Doubt or Deliberation (*Deliberative*, § 268).

NOTE.—These constructions (with the exception of some forms of Deliberative Subjunctive) are merely different phases of the same use.

REMARK.—In the conclusion (*apodosis*) of Conditional Sentences, the subjunctive is grammatically independent, though logically it depends on some condition expressed or implied (§ 304). The so-called Potential Subjunctive comes under this head (see § 311. a).

À. The subjunctive is used in *dependent* clauses to express —

¹ These modifications are of various kinds, each of which has had its own special development (compare introductory note, p. 274). The subjunctive in Latin has also many idiomatic uses (see clauses of Result and Time), where the English does not modify the verbal idea at all, but expresses it directly; but in these cases the Latin merely takes a different view of the action, and has developed its construction differently from the English.

1. Purpose (*Final*, § 317).
2. Result (*Consecutive*, § 319).
3. Characteristic (§ 320).
4. Time (*Temporal*, § 325).
5. Indirect question (§ 334).
6. Condition: future or contrary to fact (§§ 307. *b, c*, 308).

c. The subjunctive is also used with Particles of Comparison (§ 312), and in subordinate clauses in the Indirect Discourse (§ 336).

1. Hortatory Subjunctive.

266. The Hortatory Subjunctive is used to express an *exhortation*, a *command*, a *concession*, or a *condition*.

The Present tense refers to future or indefinite time; the Perfect, to past time or completed future time; the Imperfect, to present or past time; the Pluperfect, to completed past time: as, —

hōs latrōnēs interficiāmus (B. G. vii. 58), *let us kill these robbers.*

caveant intemperantiam, meminerint verēcundiae (Of. i. 122), *let them shun excess and cherish modesty.*

Epicūrus hōc viderit (Ac. ii. 19), *let Epicurus look to this.*

NOTE.— The simple subjunctive of exhortation and command takes the present tense, less commonly the perfect. The Perfect represents an action as completed in future time; but in most cases is hardly to be distinguished from the Present. Other tenses are used in some varieties of this construction (see *c.* note 1 and *e*).

REMARK.— The negative particle used with the hortatory subjunctive is *nō*.

a. The Second Person is used only of an *indefinite subject*, except in prohibition, in early Latin, and in poetry (cf. § 269. *b*). Thus, —

iniuriās fortunāe, quās ferre nequeās, defugiendō relinquās (Tus. v. 118)
the wrongs of fortune, which you cannot bear, leave behind by flight.

exoriāre aliquis ultor (Æn. iv. 625), *rise, some avenger.*

istō bonō utāre dum adsit, cum absit nē requirās (Cat. Maj. 33), *use this blessing while it is present; when it is wanting, do not regret it.*

nē cōferās culpam in mē (Ter. Eun. 388), *don't lay the blame on me.*

nihil ignōveris (Mur. 65), *pardon nothing.*

docēās iter et sacra ostia pandās (Æn. vi. 109), *show us the way and lay open the sacred portals.*

δ. In Prohibitions addressed to a definite person, the perfect is more common than the present (cf. § 269. *a*): as, —

hōc facitō: hōc nē fēcēris (Div. ii. 127), *thou shalt do this; thou shalt not do that.*

tū nē quāstēris (Hor.), *do not inquire.*

nec mīhi illud dixeris (Fin. i. 25), *and do not say that to me.*

c. The hortatory subjunctive is especially used to express a CONCESSION, sometimes with *ut*, *nē*, *quāmvīs*, *quāmlibet*, or similar words (cf. § 313. a): *as*,—

fuerit alius: tibi quāndō esse coepit (Ver. ii. i. 37), *suppose he was [so] to others, when did he begin to be to you?*

ut ratiōnem Platō nullam afferret (Tusc. i. 49), *though Plato adduced no reasons.*

nēmō is unquam fuit: nē fuerit (Or. 101), *there never was such a one [you will say]: granted* (let there not have been).

nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est (Tus. ii. 14), *granted that pain is not the greatest evil, at least it is an evil.*

quāmvīs scelerātī illi fuissent (De Or. i. 230), *however guilty they might have been.*

quāmvīs comis in amicitīs tuendis fuerit (Fin. ii. 80), *amiable as he may have been in keeping his friendships* (let him have been as amiable as you please).

NOTE 1.—In this use the Present refers to *future* or *indefinite* time, the Imperfect to *present* or *past* time (the concession being impliedly untrue), the Perfect to *past* or *completed future* time, the Pluperfect to *completed action in past time* (the concession being usually untrue).

NOTE 2.—The Indicative is often used in concessions (see § 313).

REMARK.—Concessions with *si* and its compounds belong to Protasis (see § 313. c); those with *licet*, to Substantive Clauses (see § 313. d).

d. The hortatory subjunctive may be used to denote a PROVISIO (see § 314).

e. The Imperfect and Pluperfect of the hortatory subjunctive denote an *unfulfilled obligation* in past time: *as*,—

moreretur, inquit (Rab. Post. 29), *he should have died, you will say.*

potius diceret (Off. iii. 88), *he should rather have said.*

nē poposcissēs (Att. ii. 1), *you should not have asked.*

saltem aliquid de pondere detraxisset (Fin. iv. 57), *at least he should have taken something from the weight.*

REMARK.—This use of the subjunctive is carefully to be distinguished from its use in apodosis (*potential*, § 311. a). The difference is indicated by the translation, *should* or *ought* (not *would* or *might*).

NOTE.—In this use the Pluperfect differs from the Imperfect only in more clearly representing the time for action as *momentary* or as *past*.

2. Optative Subjunctive.

267. The Subjunctive is used to express a Wish. The present tense denotes the wish as *possible*, the imperfect as *unaccomplished* in present time, the pluperfect as *unaccomplished* in past time. Thus, —

ita vivam (Att. v. 15), *so may I live (as true as I live).*
 nē vivam si sciō (Id. iv. 16), *I wish I may not live if I know.*
 di tē perdunt (Dei. 21), *the gods confound thee!*
 valeant, valeant, civēs mei; valeant, aint incolumēs (Mīl. 93), *farewell*
 [he says], *my fellow-citizens; may they be secure from harm.*
 di facerent sine patre form (Ov. Met. viii. 72), *would that the gods allowed*
me to be without a father (but they do not)!

a. The Perfect in this use is antiquated: as, —

male di tibi faxint (Plaut. Curc. 131), *may the gods do thee a mischief.*
 quod ōmen di āverterint (Philip. xii. 14, in a religious formula), *and*
may the gods avert this omen.

b. The Optative Subjunctive is often preceded by the particles uti (ut), utinam, ō si: as, —

ut pereat positum rōbigine tēlum (Hor. Sat. ii. 1), *may the weapon un-*
used perish with rust.
 falsus utinam vātes sim (Liv. xxi.), *I wish I may be a false prophet.*
 utinam P. Clōdīus vīveret (Mīl. 103), *would that Clodius were now alive.*
 utinam mē mortuum vīdisset (Q. Fr. i. 3), *would you had seen me dead.*
 ō si angulus ille accēdat (Hor. Sat. ii. 6. 8), *oh! if that corner might*
only be added.

NOTE 1. — The subjunctive with uti, etc., was originally *deliberative*, meaning *how may I*, etc. (§ 268). The subjunctive with ō si (*poetical*) is a protasis (§ 312. note); si alone is sometimes used to express a wish in the same way: as, —

si nunc sē nōbis ille aureus rāmus ostendat (Æn. vi. 187), *if now that*
golden branch would only show itself to us!

NOTE 2. — The subjunctive of Wish without a particle is rarely found in the imperfect or pluperfect except by sequence of tenses in Indirect Discourse (§ 286): as, —

ac venerāta Cerēs ita culmō sūrgeret altō (Hor. Sat. ii. 2. 124), *and Ceres*
worshipped [with libations] that so she might rise with tall stalk. [Di-
 rect: ita sūrgās.]

c. Velim and vellem, and their compounds, with a subjunctive or infinitive, are often equivalent to an optative subjunctive: as, —

dē Menedēmō vellem vērūm fuisset, dē rēginā velim vērūm sūt (Att. xv.
 4), *about Menedemus I wish it had been true; about the queen I*
hope it may be.

nūllum accidisset tempus (Fam. iii. 10), *I wish the time never had come.*
māllē Cerberum metueres (Tus. i. 12), *I had rather have had you afraid of Cerberus* (I should have preferred that you feared C.).

NOTE. — *Vāllm*, etc., in this use, are strictly apodoses with the protasis omitted (§ 311. δ). The *thing wished* is really a substantive clause used as object of the verb of wishing (§ 331. δ).

[For Concessive Subjunctive, see § 313; for Potential Subjunctive, see § 311.]

3. Deliberative Subjunctive.

268. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying (1) *doubt, indignation*, or (2) an *impossibility* of the thing's being done: as, —

quid hōc homine faciās? *quod supplicium dignum libidini eius inveniās* (Vers. ii. 40), *what are you to do with this man? what fit penalty can you devise for his wantonness?*

an ego nōn venīrem (Phil. ii. 3), *what, should I not have come?*

quid dicerem (Att. vi. 3), *what was I to say?*

mihī unquam bonōrum praesidium dēfutūrum putārem (Mil. 94), *could I think that the defence of good men would ever fail me?*

quis enim cōlāverit ignem (Ov. Her. xv. 7), *who could conceal the flame?*

REMARK. — This use is apparently derived from the Hortatory Subjunctive: *quid faciāmus?* = *faciāmus* [aliquid], *quid?* *let us do — what?* Once established, it was readily transferred to the past. *quid iaciā?* *what AM I to do?* *quid facerem?* *what WAS I to do?* Questions implying impossibility, however, cannot be distinguished from Apodosis (cf. § 311. a).

NOTE. — The Deliberative Subjunctive is sometimes called *Dubitative*. For tenses, see § 266.

III. THE IMPERATIVE.

269. The Imperative is used in Commands and Entreaties: as,

cōsultite vōbis, prospicite patriae, cōservāte vōs (Cat. iv. 3), *have a care for yourselves, guard the country, preserve yourselves.*

dīe Mārce Tullī sententiam, *Marcus Tullius, state your opinion.*

nō ipsum concute, *examine yourself.*

vīve, valēque (Hor. Sat. ii. 5. 110), *farewell, biess you* (live and be well)!

miserere animi nōn digna ferentis (Æn. ii. 144), *pity a soul bearing undeserved woes.*

NOTE. — In Negative Commands (*prohibitions*) the Present Imperative with *nō* is used by early writers and the poets as, —

nē timē (Plant. Curc. 520), *don't be afraid*

nimum nē crēde colōri (Ecl. ii. 17), *trust not too much to complexion*

equō nē crēdite (Æn. ii. 48), *trust not the horse.*

[For the Future Imperative with *ne* in laws and formal precepts, see d. 3. below.]

a. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose:—

1. By *nē* with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive: as, —

nē *terrītus fueris* (Tac. H. i. 16), *don't be alarmed.*

nē *vōs quidem iūdicēs ei qui mē absolvistis mortem timueritis* (Tusc. i. 98), *nor must you fear death, you judges that, etc.*

2. By *nōlī* with the infinitive: as, —

nōlī *putāre* (Fam. xiv. 2), *do not suppose* (be unwilling to suppose).

nōlīte cōgere sociōs (Ver. ii. i. 82), *do not compel the allies.*

NOTE. — The poets frequently use instead of *nōlī* other words of similar meaning (cf. § 273. c): as, —

parce *piās scelerāre manūs* (Æn. iii. 42), *forbear to defile your pious hands.*

cētera mitte loquī (Hor. Epod. 13. 7), *forbear to say the rest.*

fuge *quærere* (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13), *do not inquire*

3. By *cave* with or without *nē* (colloquial; *fac nē*) with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive¹ (§ 266. b): as, —

cave *putēs* (Att. vii. 20), *don't think.*

cave *dixeris*, *don't say so.*

cave *faxis* (Ter. Heaut. 187), *don't do it.*

fac nē *quid aliud cūrēs* (Fam. xvi. 11), *see that you attend to nothing else.*

NOTE. — Other negatives sometimes take the place of *nē*: as, —

nōn *dubitāveris* (Sen. Q. N. i. 3. 3), *you must not doubt.*

nihil *ignōveris* (Mur. 65), *grant no pardon* (pardon nothing).

b. General Prohibitions addressed to no definite person are regularly expressed by the Present Subjunctive with *nē* (cf. c, below): as, —

dēnique *istō bonō ūtāre dum adsit: cum absit nē requirās* (Cat. Maj. 33),
in short, use this good while present; when wanting, do not regret it

NOTE. — The poets and early writers sometimes use the Present Subjunctive with *nē* in prohibitions not general: as, —

molestus nē sis (Plaut. Most. 771), *don't be troublesome.*

nē sis *patruus mihi* (Hor. Sat. ii. 3. 88), *don't be a [harsh] uncle to me.*

c. The third person of the Imperative is antiquated or poetic: —

ollis salūs populi suprema lex estō, *the safety of the people shall be their first law.*

iusta imperia suntō, *eisque civēs modestē pārentō* (Leg. iii. 6), *let there be lawful authorities, and let the citizens strictly obey them.*

NOTE. — In prose the Hortatory Subjunctive is commonly used instead (§ 266): as, *haec igitur lēx in amicitia sanciatūr* (Lael. 40), *let this law then be laid down in case of friendship.*

¹ In prohibitions the Subjunctive with *nē* is hortatory; that with *cave* is an object clause (originally hortatory, cf. § 331. f, Rem.).

d. The Future Imperative is used in commands, etc., where there is a distinct reference to *future time*: viz., —

1. In connection with some form that marks a condition precedent (as a *future*, a *future-perfect*, or an *imperative*). Thus, —

Phyllida mitte mihi, meus est nātālis, Iollā; cum faciam vitulā prō frūgibus ipse veniſſō (Ecl. iii. 76), *send Phyllis to me, it is my birthday, Iollas; when I [shall] sacrifice a heifer for the harvest, come yourself.*
dic quibus in terris, etc., et Phyllida sōlus habētō (id. iii. 107), *tell in what lands, etc., and have Phyllis for yourself.*

2. With adverbs or other expressions of Time: as, —

crās petiſſō, dabitur (Pl. Merc. 769), *ask to-morrow [and] it shall be given.*

3. In *general directions*, as Precepts, Statutes, and Wills: as, —

cum valētūdini cōsuleris, tum cōsulitō nāvigationī (Fam. xvi. 4), *when you have attended to your health, then look to your sailing.*
is iūris civilis custōs estō (Leg. iii. 8), *let him (the praetor) be the guardian of civil right.*
Boreā flante, nē arātō, sēmen nē facitō (Plin. II. N. xviii. 77), *when the north wind blows, plough not nor sow your seed.*

e. The verbs sciō, meminī, and habeo (in the sense of *consider*), regularly use the Future Imperative instead of the Present: as, —

filiolō mē auctum sciō (Att. i. 2), *learn that I am blessed with a little boy.*
sic habētō, mi Tiro (Fam. xvi. 4), *so understand it, my good Tiro.*
dē pallā mementō, amābō (Pl. Asin.), *pray, dear, remember about the gown.*

f. The Future Indicative is sometimes used for the imperative; and quīn (*why not?*) with the Present Indicative may have the force of a command: as, —

si quid acciderit novi, faciēs ut sciam (Fam. xiv. 8), *you will let me know if anything new happens.*
quīn accipis (Ter. Heaut. 832)? *here, take it (why not take it?).*

g. Instead of the simple Imperative, cūrā, fac, or velim, followed by the subjunctive with or without ut (§ 331. f. R.) is often used, especially in colloquial language: as, —

cūrā ut Rōmāe sis (Att. i. 2), *take care to be at Rome.*
fac cūrēs ut oēs (Ter. Eun. 500), *do try to induce [him].*
fac ut valētūdinem cūrēs (Fam. xiv. 17), *see that you take care of your health.* [Cf. rūs eō, fac, amābō (Ter. Eun. 533). *I'm going into the country. Do, please.*
domi aditū facitō (id. 506), *be at home, do.*
cum mihi velim mittā (Att. viii. 21), *I wish you would send it to me.*

h. In the Indirect Discourse all imperative forms of speech are represented by the Subjunctive (see § 339).

i. The Imperative sometimes has the force of a Conditional Clause (see § 310. b).

IV. THE INFINITIVE.

NOTE.—The Infinitive is properly a noun denoting the action of the verb abstractly. It differs, however, from other abstract nouns in the following points: (1) it admits in many cases of the distinction of tense; (2) it is modified by *ad-verbs*, not by *adjectives*; (3) it governs the same case as its verb; (4) it is limited to special constructions.

The Latin Infinitive is the dative (or locative) case of such a noun and was originally used to denote Purpose; but it has in many constructions developed into a substitute for a finite verb. Hence the variety of its use.

In its use as a verb, the Infinitive may take a Subject-Accusative (§ 240. f), originally the object of another verb on which the Infinitive depended. Thus *iubeō tē valēre* is literally, *I command you for being well* (cf. substantive clauses, § 330).

I. Infinitive as Subject, etc.

270. The Infinitive, with or without a subject-accusative, may be used with *est* and similar verbs (1) as the Subject, (2) in Apposition with the subject, or (3) as a Predicate Nominative. Thus, —

1. Subject: as, —

dolēre malum est (Finib. v. 84), *to suffer pain is an evil.*

bellum est sua vitia nōsse (Att. ii. 17), *it's a fine thing to know one's own faults.*

pulchrum est benefacere rei publicae (Sall. Cat. 3), *it is a noble thing to benefit the state.*

mōtōs praestat compōnere flūctūs (Æn. i. 135), *it is better to calm the troubled waves.*

hōc facere illum mihi quam prōsit nesciō (Att. ii. 16), *I don't know how his doing this benefits me.*

2. In Apposition with the Subject: as, —

proinde quasi iniūriam facere id dēmum esset imperiō ūti (Sall. Cat. 12), *just as if this, — to commit injustice, were to use power.* [Here *facere* is in apposition with *id*.]

3. Predicate Nominative: as, —

id est convenienter naturae vivere (Finib. iv. 41), *that is to live in conformity with nature.* [Cf. *ūti* in the last example.]

NOTE 1. — An infinitive may also be used as Direct Object in connection with a Predicate Accusative, or as Appositive with such Direct Object; as, —

istūc ipsum nōn esse cum fueris miserrimum putō (Tus. i. 12), *for I think this very thing most wretched, not to be when one has been.*

miserārī, invīdēre, gestīre, laetārī, haec omnia morbos Graeci appellant (Tuscul. iii. 7), *to feel pity, envy, desire, joy,—all these things the Greeks call diseases.*

NOTE 2.—An Appositive or Predicate noun used with an infinitive in any of these constructions is put in the Accusative, whether the infinitive has a subject expressed or not. Thus,—

nōn esse cupidum pecūnia (Parad. 51), *to be free from desires (not to be desirous) is money in hand.*

a. 1. The infinitive as subject is not common except with *est* and similar verbs. (See examples above.)

NOTE.—In this use the abstract idea expressed by the infinitive is represented as *having some quality or belonging to some thing.*

2. But occasionally, especially in less careful writers and in poetry, the infinitive is used as the subject of verbs which are apparently more active in meaning: as,—

quōs omnis eadem cupere, eadem ōdisse, eadem metuere in ūnum cōēgit (Jug. 31), *all of whom the fact of desiring, hating, and fearing the same things has united into one.*

ingenuās didicisse fidēliter artēs emollit mōrēs (Ov. ex P. ii. 9. 48), *faithfully to have learned liberal arts softens the manners.*

posse loquī eripitur (Ov. M. ii. 483), *the power of speech is taken away.*

nōn cadit invīdēre in sapientem (Tuscul. iii. 21), *the sage is not liable to envy (to envy does not fall upon the sage).*

istūc nihil dolēre nōn sine māgnā mercēde contingit (Tuscul. iii. 12), *that apathy is not to be had except at great cost (does not fall to one's lot).*

b. The infinitive is used with many impersonal verbs and expressions, partly as subject and partly as complementary infinitive (§ 271).

Such are *libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, vīsum est, pudet, piget, necesse est, opus est*, etc.

Id primum in poētīs cernī licet (De Or. iii. 27), *this may be seen first in poets.*

reperiēbat quid dīci opus esset (Bru. 215), *he found what needed to be said.*
haec praescripta servantem licet magnificē vīvere (Off. i. 92), *one who observes these precepts may live nobly.*

Catō negat iūs esse qui miles nōn sit pāgnāre cum hoste (Off. i. 37).
Cato says it is not right that one who is not a soldier should fight with the enemy.

necesse est morī (Tusc. li. 2), *it is necessary to die.*

quid attinet gloriōse loqui nisi cōstanter loquāre (Finib. ii. 89), *what good does it do to talk boastfully unless you speak consistently?*

nōn lubet enim mihi dēplorāre vitam (Cato Major 84), *for it does not please me to lament my life.*

neque mē vixisse paenitet (id. 84), *I do not feel sorry to have lived.*

iam pridem gubernāre mē taedēbat (Att. ii. 7, 4), *I had long been tired of being pilot.*

NOTE 1. — These are not generally real cases of the infinitive used as subject, but approach that construction.

NOTE 2. — For the subject of such infinitives, and for predicate nouns or adjectives agreeing with the subject, see §§ 271. c, 272. u.

c Rarely the infinitive is used exactly like the accusative of a noun: as,

beātē vivere alii in aliō, vōs in voluptātē pōnitis (Finib. ii. 86), *a happy life different [philosophers] base on different things, you on pleasure.*

quam multa . . . facimus causā amicōrum, precārī ab indignō, supplicāre etc. (Laelius 57), *how many things we do for our friends' sake, ask favors from an unworthy person, resort to entreaty, etc.*

nihil explorātum habeās, nē amāre quidem aut amārī (Laelius 97), *you have nothing assured, not even loving and being loved.*

NOTE. — Many complementary and other constructions approach a proper accusative use of the infinitive, but their development has been different from that of the examples under c. Thus, —

avāritia . . . superbiam, crūdelitatem, deōs neglegere, omnia vēnalia habēre ēdocuit (Sall. Cat. 10), *avarice taught pride, cruelty, to neglect the gods, and to hold everything at a price.*

2. Complementary Infinitive.

271. Verbs which imply *another action of the same subject* to complete their meaning take the infinitive without a subject-accusative: as, —

hōc quēō dicere (Cat. Maj. 32), *this I can say.*

mittō quaerere (Ros. Am.), *I omit to ask.*

vereor laudāre praesentem (N. D. i. 58), *I fear to praise a man to his face* (one who is present).

orō ut mātūres venire (Att. iv. 1), *I beg you will make haste to come.*

oblivisci non possum quae volō (Finib. ii. 104), *I cannot forget that which I wish.*

dēsine mē id docēre (Tuscul. ii. 29), *cease to teach me that.*

audeo dicere, *I venture to say.*

loqui posse coepi (Cic.), *I began to be able to speak.*

Such are verbs denoting *to be able, dare, undertake, remember, forget, be accustomed, begin, continue, cease, hesitate, learn, know how, fear, and the like.*

NOTE.—The mark of this construction is that no Subject of these infinitives is in general admissible or conceivable. But some infinitives usually regarded as objects can hardly be distinguished from this construction when they have no subject expressed. Thus *volō dicere* and *volō mē dicere* mean the same thing, *I wish to speak*; but the latter is object-infinitive, while the former is not apparently different in origin and construction from *quēd dicere* (*complementary infinitive*), and again *volō eum dicere*, *I wish him to speak*, is essentially different from either.

a. Many verbs take either a subjunctive clause or a complementary infinitive, without difference of meaning. Such are verbs signifying *willingness, necessity, propriety, resolve, command, prohibition, effort*, and the like (cf. § 331): as, —

student excellere (Of. i. 116), *they aim to excel.*

cum statuissem scribere ad tē aliquid (Off. i. 4), *when I had resolved to address something to you.*

istum exhērēdāre in animō habēbat (Rosc. Am. 52), *he had it in mind to deprive him of the inheritance.*

NOTE 1.—With some of these verbs an infinitive with subject-accusative may be used as *object*, taking the place of a *complementary infinitive*. In this use the subject of the infinitive and that of the main verb are of course the same. Thus, —

cupiō mē esse clēmētem (Cat. i. 4) = *cupiō esse clēmēns*, *I desire to be merciful* (cf. § 331. *b.* note).

NOTE 2.—Some verbs of these classes never take the subjunctive, but are identical in meaning with others which do. as, —

quōs tuārī debent dēserunt (Of. i. 28), *they forsake those whom they should protect.*

nōn lubet fugere avēō pūgnāre (Att. ii. 18, 3), *I have no desire to run away, I'm anxious to fight.*

b. Some verbs of these classes — *iubeō* and *vētō* regularly — may take (as object) the infinitive with a subject¹ different from that of the main verb (see § 331. *a.*): as, —

signa inferri iubet (Liv. xlii. 59), *he orders the standards to be advanced.*

Pompēius . . . rem ad arma dēdūci studēbat (B. C. i. 4), *Pompey was anxious to have matters come to open war*

c. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after a complementary infinitive takes the case of the subject of the main verb: as, —

fieri que studēbam eius prādentia doctior (Laelius 1), *I was eager to become more wise through his wisdom.*

¹ This construction, though in many cases different from the two preceding shades off imperceptibly into them. In none of the uses under § 271 is the infinitive strictly Subject or Object; but its meaning is developed from the original one of *purpose* (cf. § 273. *a.*).

sciō quam solcās esse occupātus (Fam. xvi. 21), *I know how busy you usually are (are wont to be).*

brevis esse labōrō obscurus fiō (Hor. A. P. 25), *I struggle to be brief, I become obscure.*

NOTE. — If the construction of the main verb is impersonal, the predicate noun or adjective is in the accusative (but for licet, etc., see § 272. 2. 2). Thus, —

peregrini officium est minimē in aliēnā esse rēpublicā cūriōsum (Of. i. 125),
it is the duty of a stranger to be by no means curious in a foreign state.

d. For the Infinitive in poetry instead of a substantive clause of purpose, see § 331. g.

3. Infinitive with Subject-Accusative.

272. The Infinitive, with Subject-Accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of *knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving (Indirect Discourse, § 336)*:¹ as, —

dicit montem ab hostibus tenērī (B. G. i. 22), *he says that the hill is held by the enemy.* [Direct: mōns ab hostibus tenētur.]

REMARK. — The Infinitive Clause may be — 1. the Direct Object of the verb: as, *Caesarem adesse nūtiāvit*, *he reported that Caesar was present*; 2. the Subject of the same verb in the passive: as, *Caesarem adesse nūtiātum est*, *it was reported that Caesar was present*; 3. the Predicate Nominative (or Appositive) with words like *fama*, *rumor*, etc.: as, *rumor erat Caesarem adesse*, *there was a report that Caesar was present* (cf. *Ann.* iii. 295).

a. 1. With certain impersonal verbs and expressions that take the infinitive as an apparent subject (§ 270. b), the personal subject of the action may be expressed —

1. By a dative, depending on the verb or verbal phrase: or,

2. By an accusative expressed as the subject of the infinitive. Thus,
rogant ut id sibi facere liceat (B. G. i. 7), *they ask that it be allowed them to do this.*

si licet vivere eum quem Sex. Naevius nōn volt (Quinct. 94), *if it is allowed a man to live against the will of Sextus Naevius (whom S. N. does not wish).*

quid est tam secundum nātūram quam senibus emori (Cato Major 71),
what is so much in accordance with nature as for old men to die?
extingui hominī suō tempore optābile est (id. 85), *it is desirable for a man to die at the appointed time.*

2. With licet regularly, and other verbs occasionally, a predicate noun or adjective following the infinitive may be in the dative: as, —

¹ The Infinitive may thus represent, in *indirect discourse*, a finite verb in *direct discourse*, admitting all the variations of the verb except number and person.

licuit esse *otiosus* Themistocli (Tuscul. i. 33), *Themistocles might have been inactive* (it was allowed to T. to be inactive).

mihi negligentī esse nōn licet (Att. i. 17), *I must not be negligent.* [But also *neglegentem.*]

cur his esse liberōs nōn licet (Flacc. 71), *why is it not allowed these men to be free?*

nōn est stantibus omnibus necesse dicere (Marc. 33), *it is not necessary for all to speak standing.*

expedit bonās esse vōbis (Ter. Heaut. 388), *it is for your advantage to be good.*

mediocribus esse poētis nōn hominēs nōn dī concessēre (Hor. A. P. 372), *neither gods nor men have granted to ordinary men to be poets.*

NOTE. — When the subject is not expressed, as being indefinite (*one, anybody*), a predicate noun or adjective must be in the accusative (cf. § 271. c. note): as, —

vel pāce vel bellō clārum fieri licet (Sall. Cat. 3), *one can become illustrious either in peace or in war.*

b. In poetry, by a Greek idiom, a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the indirect discourse sometimes agrees with the subject of the main verb: as, —

vir bonus et sapiēs ait esse parātus (Hor. Ep. i. 7), *a good and wise man says he is prepared*, etc. [In prose: ait sē esse parātum.]

sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostēs (Æn. ii. 377), *he found himself fallen among the foe.* [In prose: sē esse dēlāpsum.]

4. Infinitive of Purpose.

273. In a few cases the Infinitive retains its original meaning of Purpose.

a. The infinitive is used after *habēō, dō, ministrō*, in isolated passages instead of a subjunctive clause: as, —

tantum habēō pollicēri (Fam. i. 5), *so much I have to promise.* [Here the more formal construction would be *quod pollicear.*]

ut Iovi bibere ministrāret (Tusc. i. 65), *to serve Jove with wine (to drink)*
meridiē bibere datō (Cato R. R. 89), *give (to) drink at noonday.*

b. *Parātus, suētus* and their compounds (used as adjectives) take the infinitive, like the verbs from which they come: as, —

id quod parāti sunt facere (Quin. 8), *that which they are ready to do.*

aduēfacti superārī (B. G. vi. 24), *used to being conquered.*

carrū suocōdere suētī (Æn. iii. 541), *accustomed to being harnessed to the chariot.*

cōpiās bellāre cōsuētās (B. Afr. 73), *forces used to fighting.*

NOTE.—These words more commonly in prose take the gerund or gerundive construction (§ 296 ff.) either in the Dative, the Genitive, or the Accusative with *ad*. Thus, —

alendis liberis suēti (Tac. Ann. xiv. 27), *accustomed to supporting children*.
insuētus nāvigandi (B. C. iii. 49), *unused to making voyages*.
corpora insuēta ad onera portanda (id. i. 78), *bodies unaccustomed to carry burdens*.

c. In poetry and later writers almost any verb may have the infinitive, after the analogy of verbs of more literal meaning that take it in prose as, —

furit tē reperire (Hor. Od. i. 15. 27), *he rages to find thee*. [A forcible way of saying *cupit* (§ 271. a).]
saevit exstinguere nōmen (Ov. M. i. 200), *he rages to blot out the name*.
fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9. 13) *forbear to ask* (cf. § 269. a. 2. note).
parce acclerāre (Æn. iii. 42), *forbear to pollute*.

d. Many adjectives take the infinitive in poetry following a Greek idiom: as, —

dūrus compōnere versūs (Hor. Sat. i. 4. 8), *harsh in composing verse*.
cantāri dignus (Ecl. v. 54), *worthy to be sung*. [In prose: *quī cantētur*.]
fortis trāctāre serpentis (Hor. Od. i. 37. 26), *brave to handle serpents*.
periti cantāre (Ecl. x. 32), *skilled in song*.
facilēs aurem praeberē (Prop. ii. 21. 15), *ready to lend an ear*.
nescia vinci pectora (Æn. xii. 527), *hearts not knowing how to yield*.
tē vidēre aegrōti (Plaut. Trin. 75), *sick of seeing you*.

e. The poets and early writers often use the infinitive to express purpose when there is no analogy with any prose construction: as, —

lōricam dōnat habēre virō (Æn. v. 262), *he gives the hero a breastplate to wear*. [In prose: *habendam*.]
filius tum introit vidēre quid agat (Ter. Hecyra 345), *the son then went in to see what, etc.* [In prose: the supine *visum*.]
nōn ferrō libycōs populāre Penātēs vēnimus (Æn. i. 527), *we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes*.

NOTE.—So rarely in prose writers of the classic period.

f. For the infinitive used instead of a substantive clause of purpose, see § 331. a-g.

NOTE.—For *tempus est abire*, see § 298, note.

g. Rarely in poetry the infinitive is used to express *result*: as, —

figit equum tenerā docilem cervice magister ire viam, etc. (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 64), *makes the horse gentle so as to go, etc.*
hic levāre . . . pauperem labōribus vocātus audit (Hor. Od. ii. 18. 38), *as when called, hears, so as to relieve, etc.*

NOTE. — These poetic constructions (*c-g*) were no doubt originally regular and belong to the Infinitive as a noun in the Dative or Locative case (p. 283, head-note). They had been supplanted, however, by other more formal constructions, and were afterwards restored through Greek influence.

h. In late or poetic usage the infinitive occasionally occurs as a pure noun limited by a possessive or other adjective: as, —

nostrum vivere (Pers. Sat. i. 9), *our life* (to live).

scire tuum (id. 27), *your knowledge* (to know).

5. Exclamatory Infinitive.

274. The Infinitive, with subject-accusative,¹ may be used in Exclamations (cf. § 240. *d*): as, —

tē in tantās aerumnās propter mē incidisse (Fam. xiv. 1), *alas! that you should have fallen into such grief for me.*

mēne inceptō desistere victam (Æn. i. 37), *what! I beaten desist from my purpose?*

NOTE. — The Present and the Perfect Infinitive are used in this construction with their ordinary distinction of time.

6. Historical Infinitive.

275. The Infinitive is often used for the Imperfect Indicative in narration, and takes a subject in the nominative: as, —

tum Catilina pollicēri novās tabulās (Sall. Cat. 21), *then Catiline promised abolition of debts* (clean ledgers).

ego instāre ut mihi respondēret (Ver. ii. 188), *I kept urging him to answer me.*

pars cedere, alii insequi; neque signa neque ordinēs servāre; ubi quemque periculum cēperat, ibi resistere ac prōpulsāre; arma, tela, equi, viri, hostēs atque civēs permixti; nihil cōsiliō neque imperiō agi; fors omnia regere (Jug. 51), *a part give way, others press on; they hold neither to standards nor ranks; where danger overtook, there each would stand and fight; arms, weapons, horses, men, foe and friend, mingled in confusion; nothing went by counsel or command; chance ruled all.*

NOTE. — This construction is not strictly *historical*, but rather *descriptive*, and is never used to state a mere historical fact.

¹ This construction is elliptical; that is, the thought is quoted in Indirect Discourse, though no verb of *saying*, etc., appears, or perhaps is thought of (compare the French *dire que*). Passages like *hancine ego ad rem nātam miseram mē memorābō* (Plaut. Rud. 188)? point to the origin of the construction.

II.—TENSES.

NOTE.—The number of possible Tenses is very great. For in each of the three times, Present, Past, and Future, an action may be represented as going on, completed, or beginning; as habitual or isolated; as defined in time or indefinite (*aoristic*); as determined with reference to the time of the speaker, or as not itself so determined but as relative to some time which is determined; and the past and future times may be near or remote. Thus a scheme of thirty or more tenses might be devised.

But, in the development of forms, which always takes place gradually, no language finds occasion for more than a small part of these. The most obvious distinctions, according to our habits of thought, appear in the following scheme:—

I. DEFINITE (fixing the time of the action).			2. INDEFINITE.	
INCOMPLETE.		COMPLETE.	NARRATIVE.	
PRESENT:	α. <i>I am writing.</i>	δ. <i>I have written.</i>	η. <i>I write.</i>	
PAST:	β. <i>I was writing.</i>	ε. <i>I had written.</i>	θ. <i>I wrote.</i>	
FUTURE:	γ. <i>I shall be writing.</i>	ζ. <i>I shall have written.</i>	ι. <i>I shall write.</i>	

Most languages disregard some of these distinctions, and some make other distinctions not here given. The Indo-European parent speech had a Present tense to express α and η, a Perfect to express δ, an Aorist to express θ, a Future to express γ and ι, and an Imperfect to express β. The Latin, however, confounded the Perfect and Aorist in a single form (the Perfect *scripsi*), thus losing all distinction of form between δ and θ and probably in a great degree the distinction of meaning. The nature of this confusion may be seen by comparing *dixi*, *dicāvi*, and *didici* (all Perfects derived from the same root, *DIC*), with *ἔδειξα*, Skr. *adiksham*, *ḍēdēṣha*, Skr. *dideṣa*. Latin also developed two new forms, those for ε (*scripseram*) and ζ (*scripserō*), and thus possessed six tenses, as seen in § 115.

The lines between these six tenses in Latin are not hard and fast, nor are they precisely the same that we draw in English. Thus in many verbs the form corresponding to *I have written* (δ) is used for those corresponding to *I am writing* (α) and *I write* (η) in a slightly different sense, and the form corresponding to *I had written* (ε) is used in like manner for that corresponding to *I was writing* (β). Again, the Latin often uses the form for *I shall have written* (ζ) instead of that for *I shall write* (ι). Thus *nōvī*, *I have learned*, is used for *I know*; *cōnstitērat*, *he had taken his position*, for *he stood*; *cōgnōverō*, *I shall have learned*, for *I shall be aware*.

I. TENSES OF INCOMPLETE ACTION.

1. Present (General Use).

276. The Present Tense denotes an action or state (1) as *now taking place* or *existing*; and so (2) as *incomplete* in present time, or (3) as *indefinite*, referring to no particular time, but denoting a *general truth*. Thus,—

senātus haec intelligit, cōsul videt, hic tamen vivit (Cat. l. 2), *the Senate knows this, the consul sees it, yet this man lives.*

etiam nunc nō dūcere istis dictis postalās (Ter. And. 644), *even now you are expecting, etc.*

tibi cōcedō meās sēdēs (Divin. i. 104), *I give you my seat* (an offer which may or may not be accepted).

expectō quid velis (Ter. And. 34), *I await your pleasure* (what you wish).

tū āctionēm instituis, ille aciem instruit (Mur. 22), *you arrange a case, he arrays an army*. [The present is here used of *regular employment*.]

minōra di neglegunt (Nat. D. iii. 86), *the gods disregard trifles*. [Of a *general truth*.]

obsequium amicōs, vērītās odium parit (Ter. And. 68), *flattery gains friends, truth hatred*. [General truth.]

a. The Present, with expressions of *duration of time*, especially *iam diū, iam dūdum*, denotes an action continuing in the present, but begun in the past (cf. § 277. b): as, —

iam diū ignōrō quid agās (Fam. vii. 9), *for a long time I have not known what you are doing*.

tē iam dūdum hortor (Catil. i. 12), *I have long urged you*.

patimur iam multōs annōs (Verr. v. 126), *we suffer now these many years*. [The perfect would imply, *we no longer suffer*.]

anni sūnt octō cum ista causa versātur (Clu. 82), *it is now eight years that this case has been in hand*.

annum iam audis Cratippum (Off. i. 1), *for a year you've been a hearer of Cratippus*.

NOTE 1. — In this use the present is commonly to be rendered by the perfect in English. The difference in the two idioms is that the English states the beginning and leaves the continuance to be inferred, while the Latin states the continuance and leaves the beginning to be inferred. Compare: *he has long suffered* (and still suffers) with *he still suffers* (and has suffered) long.

NOTE 2. — Similarly the Present Imperative with *iam dūdum* indicates that the action commanded *ought to have been done* or *was wished for* long ago (cf. the Perfect Imperative in Greek): as, —

iam dūdum sūmite poenas (Æn. ii. 103), *exact the penalty long delayed*.

b. The Present sometimes denotes an action *attempted* or *begun* in present time, but never completed at all (*Conative Present*, cf. § 277. c): as, —

iam iamque manū tenet (Æn. ii. 530), *and now, even now, he attempts to grasp it*.

dēnsōs fertur in hostis (id. ii. 511), *he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe*.

quīquagintā dīerum supplicatiōnēs (Phil. xiv. 29), *I mean for fifty days' thanksgiving*. [Cf. *senātus decrevit*, *the senate ordained*.]

c. The Present, especially in colloquial language and poetry, is often used for the Future: as, —

Immo scisum (De Or. iii. 17), *shall we take a seat? (are we going to sit?)*

hand *mutū factum* (Ter. And. 40), *I do not wish to change it* (I am not trying to change).

quod si fit pereō funditus (id. 244), *if this happens, I am utterly undone.*

hodiē uxōrem dūcis (id. 321), *are you to be married to-day?*

abīn hinc in malam rem (id. 317), *will you be off? go and be hanged!*

si pereō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), *if I perish, it will be pleasant to perish at the hands of men* (cf. § 307. a, note).

ecquid mē adiuvās (Clu. 71), *won't you give me a little help?*

in iūs vocō te. nōn eō. nōn īs (Pl. As. 480)? *I summon you to the court. I won't go. You won't?*

NOTE.—Eō and its compounds are especially frequent in this use. (Cf. *where are you going to-morrow?* and the Greek εἰμι in a future sense.)

REMARK.—For other uses of the Present in a future sense, see under Conditions (§ 307), cum (§ 328), antequam (§ 327. a), dum (§ 328), and the Deliberative Subjunctive (§ 268).

2. Historical Present.

d. The Present in lively narrative is often used for the Historical Perfect (*Historical Present*): as,—

affertur nūntius Syracūsās; curritur ad prætōrium; Cleomenēs, quamquam nox erat, tamen in publicō esse nōn audent; inclūdit sē domū (Verr. v. 92), *the news is brought to Syracuse; they run to headquarters; Cleomenes, though it was night, does not venture to be abroad; he shuts himself up at home.*

NOTE.—This usage, common in all languages, comes from imagining past events as going on before our eyes (*repræsentatiō*).

3. Present with dum.

e. Dum, while, regularly takes the Present Indicative in reference to past events.

In translating, the English imperfect must generally be used. Thus,—

haec dum aguntur, interea Cleomenēs iam ad Flōri litus pervēnerat (Verr. v. 91), *while this was going on, Cleomenes meanwhile had come down to the coast at Florum.*

hōc dum nārrat, forte audivī (Ter. Heaut. 272), *I happened to hear this while she was telling it.*

NOTE.—A past tense with dum (usually *so long as*) makes the contrast emphatic by contrast. But a few irregular cases of dum with a past tense occur where the contrast is intended. Thus,—

nec enim dum eram vōbiscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cat. Maj. 79), *while I was with you, you couldn't see my soul. [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after his death.]*

coorta est pūgna, pār dum cōnstābant ōrdinēs (Liv. xxii. 47), *a conflict began, well matched as long as the ranks stood firm.*

But,—dum oculōs hostium certāmen āverterat (id. xxxii. 24), *while the struggle kept the eyes of the enemy turned away.*

dum unum adscendere gradum cōnātus est, vēnit in periculum (Mur. 55), *while he attempted to climb one step [in rank] he fell into danger.*

f. The present is regularly used in quoting writers whose works are extant: as,—

Epicūrus vērō ea dīcit (Tus. ii. 17), *but Epicurus says such things.*

apud illum Ulixēs lāmentātur in vulnere (id. 49), *in him (Sophocles) Ulysses bewails over his wound.*

Polyphēnum Homērus cum ariete colloquentem facit (Tuscul. v. 115), *Homer brings in (makes) Polyphemus talking with his ram.*

4. Imperfect.

277. The Imperfect denotes an action or a state as continued or repeated in past time: as,—

hunc audiēbant antea (Man. 13), *they used to hear of him before.*

Sōcratēs ita cōsēbat itaque disseruit (Tusc. i. 72), *Socrates thought so (habitually), and so he spoke (then).*

prūdēns esse putābātur (Laelius 6), *he was (generally) thought wise.*
[The perfect would refer to some particular case, and not to a state of things.]

iamque rubescēbat Aurōra (Aen. iii. 521), *and now the dawn was blushing.*
ara vetus stābat (Ov. M. vii. 1), *an old altar stood there.*

NOTE.—The Imperfect is a descriptive tense and denotes an action conceived as *in progress* or a state of things as *actually observed*. Hence in many verbs it does not differ in meaning from the Perfect. Thus *rōx erat* and *rōx fuit* may often be used indifferently; but the former *describes* the condition while the latter only *states* it. The English is less exact in distinguishing these two modes of statement. Hence the Latin Imperfect is often translated by the English Preterite. Thus:—

Aedui graviter ferēbant, neque lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittere audēbant (B. G. v. 6), *the Aedui were displeased, and did not dare, etc.*

[Here the Imperfects describe the state of things.] But,—

id tulit factum graviter Indutiomarus (id. v. 4), *Indutiomarus was displeased, etc.* [Here the Perfect merely states the fact.]

aedificia vicōque habēbant (id. iv. 4), *they had buildings and villages.*

REMARK.—The Imperfect represents a present tense transferred to past time. Hence all the meanings which the present has derived from the continuance of the action, belong also to the imperfect in reference to past time (see details below).

a. The Imperfect is used in descriptions: as,—

erant omninō itinera duo . . . mōns altissimus impendēbat (B. G. i. 6),
there were in all two ways . . . a very high mountain overhanging.

b. With *iam diū*, *iam dūdum*, and other expressions of duration of time, the Imperfect denotes an action continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 115. a. 2): as, —

iam dūdum flēbam (Ov. M. iii. 656), *I had been weeping for a long time.*
cōpiās quās diū comparābant (Fam. xi. 13), *the forces which they had long been getting ready.*

NOTE.—In this construction the Imperfect is rendered by the English Pluperfect. Compare the Present in similar phrases (§ 276. a).

c. The Imperfect sometimes denotes an action as begun (*Inceptive Imperfect*), or as attempted or only intended (*Conative Imperfect*) (cf. § 276. b): as, —

in exilium dīciēbam quem iam ingressum esse in bellum vidēbam (Cat. ii. 14), *was I sending (i.e. trying to send) into exile one who I saw had already gone into war?*

hunc igitur diem sibi prōpōnēs Milō, cruentis manibus ad illa augusta centuriarum auspicia veniēbat (Mil. 43), *was Milo coming (i.e. was it likely that he would come), etc.?*

si licitum esset veniēbant (Ver. v. 129), *they were coming if it had been allowed (they were on the point of coming, and would have done so if, etc.).*

NOTE.—To this head may be referred the imperfect with *iam*, denoting the beginning of an action or state: as, —

iamque arva tenēbant ūltima (Ain. vi. 477), *and now they were just getting to the farthest fields.*

d. The Imperfect is sometimes used to express a surprise at the present discovery of a fact already existing: as, —

Ō tū quoque hic aderās (Ter. Ph. 858), *oh! you are here too.*

ehem pater mi, tu hic erās (Plaut.), *what! you here, father?*

ah miser! quantā laborābās Charylidi (Hor. Od. i. 27. 19), *unhappy boy, what a whirlpool you are struggling in [and I never knew it]!*

e. The Imperfect is often used in dialogue by the comic poets where later writers would employ the Perfect: as, —

ad amicum Calliclem quoi rem aibat mandāsse hic suam (Plaut. Trin. 956), *to his friend Callicles, to whom, he said, he had intrusted his property.*

praesāgibat animus frustrā mē ire quom exhibam domō (Plaut. Aul. 222), *my mind mistrusted when I went from home that I went in vain.*

NOTE.—So also, in conversation, the imperfect of verbs of saying, (cf. as I was a-saying): as, —

at medicī quoque, ita enim dicēbās, saepe falluntur (Nat. D. iii. 15), *for that was what you were saying just now.*

haec mihi fere in mentem veniēbant (id. li. 67, 168), *this is about what occurred to me, etc.* [In a straightforward narration this would be *venerunt*.]

f. For the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis *contrary to fact*, see § 308. *b*.

g. The Imperfect with negative words often has the force of the English auxiliary *could* or *would*: as, —

itaque (Dāmoclēs) nec pulchrōs illōs ministrātōrēs adspiciēbat (Tuscul. v. 62), *therefore he could not look upon those beautiful slaves*. [In this case *did not* would not express the idea of *continued prevention* of enjoyment by the overhanging sword.]

nec enim dum eram vōbiscum animum meum vidēbātis (Cato Major 79), *for, you know, while I was with you, you could not see my soul*. [Here the Perfect would refer only to *one moment*.]

h. For the Epistolary Imperfect, see § 282.

5. Future.

278. The Future denotes an action or state that will occur hereafter.

a. The Future sometimes has the force of an Imperative (see § 269. *f*).

b. The Future is often required in a subordinate clause in Latin where in English futurity is sufficiently expressed by the main clause: as, —

cum aderit vidēbit, *when he is there he will see* (cf. § 325. *e*).

sānābimur si volēmus (Tusc. iii. 13), *we shall be healed if we wish* (cf. § 307. *a*).

II. THE TENSES OF COMPLETED ACTION.

1. Perfect.

279. The Perfect denotes an action either as *now completed* (*Perfect Definite*), or as *having taken place* at some undefined point of past time (*Historical* or *Aoristic Perfect*). Thus, —

(1) ut ego fēci, qui Graecās litterās senex didici (Cat. Maj. 26), *as I have done, who have learned Greek in my old age*.

diūturni silenti finem hodiernus diēs attulit (Marc. 1), *this day has put an end to my long-continued silence*.

(2) tantum bellum extrēmā hieme apparāvit, incunte vērē suscepit, mediā aestate cōnfēcit (Man. 35), *so great a war he made ready for at the end of winter, undertook in early spring, and finished by midsummer*.

NOTE. — The distinction between these two uses of the perfect, which is represented by two forms in most other Indo-European languages, was almost if not wholly lost to the minds of the Romans. It must be noticed, however, on account of the marked distinction in English (see also § 115. *e*).

a. The perfect is sometimes used emphatically to denote that a thing or condition of things that once existed no longer exists: as, —

fuit ista quondam in hac re publicā virtūs (Cat. i. 3), *there was once such virtue in this commonwealth.*

habuit, nōn habet (Tusc. i. 87), *he had, he has no longer.*

filium habeo . . . immō habui; nunc habeam necne incertum est (Ter Heaut. 92), *I have a son, no, I had one; whether I have one now or not is uncertain.*

fuimus Trōes, fuit Ilīum (Æn. ii. 325), *we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is no more.*

b. The Indefinite Present, denoting a *customary action* or a *general truth* (§ 276), often has the Perfect in a subordinate clause referring to time antecedent to that of the main clause as, —

qui in compedibus corporis semper fuērunt, etiam cū solūti sunt tardius ingrediuntur (Tusc. i. 75), *they who have always been in the fetters of the body, even when released move more slowly.*

haec morte effugiuntur, etiam si nōn ēvēnērunt, tamen quia possunt ēvenire (id. 86), *these things are escaped by death even if they have not [yet] happened, etc.*

simul ac mihi collibitum est, praestō est imāgō (N. D. i. 108), *as soon as I have taken a fancy, the image is before my eyes.*

NOTE. — This use of the perfect is especially common in the protasis of general conditions in present time (§ 309. c).

c. The perfect is sometimes used of a *general truth*, especially with negatives (*Gnomic Perfect*): as, —

qui studet contingere mētā multa tulit fœcitque (Hor. A. P. 412), *he who aims to reach the goal, first bears and does many things.*

nōn aeris acervus et auri dēdūxit corpore fēbrēs (id. Ep. i. 2, 47), *the pile of brass and gold removes not fever from the frame.*

NOTE. — The gnomic perfect strictly refers to past time; but its use implies that something which never *did* happen in any known case, never *does* happen, and never will (cf. the English "*Faint heart never won fair lady*"); or without a negative that what *has once* happened will *always* happen under similar circumstances.

d. The Perfect is often used in expressions containing or implying a *negation*, where in affirmation the Imperfect would be preferred: as, —

dicēbat melius quam scripsit Hortēsius (Or. 132), *Hortensius spoke better than he wrote.* [Here the negative is implied in the comparison: compare the use of *quisquam*, *ullus*, etc. (§ 202. c), and the French *ne* after comparatives and superlatives.]

e. The completed tenses of some verbs are equivalent to the incomplete tenses of verbs of kindred meaning.

Such are the preteritive verbs *odī*, *I hate*; *meminī*, *I remember*; *nōvī*, *I know*; *odnsuēvī*, *I am accustomed*,¹ with others used preteritively, as *venerat* (= *aderat*, *he was at hand*, etc.) (see § 143, note). Thus, —

qui diēs aestūs m̄ximōs efficere odnsuēvit (B. G. iv. 29), *which day generally makes the highest tides* (is accustomed to make).

cūius splendor obsolēvit (Quinct. 59), *whose splendor is now all faded* (has become old).

REMARK. — Many other verbs are occasionally so used: as, —

dum oculōs certāmen āverterat (Liv. xxxii. 24), *while the contest had turned their eyes* (kept them turned). [Here *āverterat* = *tenēbat*.]

2. Pluperfect.

280. The Pluperfect is used (1) to denote an action or state *completed* in past time; or (2) sometimes to denote an action in indefinite time, but prior to some past time referred to: as, —

(1) *loci nātūra erat haec, quem locum nostri castris dēlēgerant* (B. G. ii. 18), *this was the nature of the ground which our men had chosen for a camp.*

Viridovix summam imperi tenēbat eārum omnium civitātum quae dēfēcerant (id. lii. 17), *Viridovix held the chief command of all those tribes which had revolted.*

(2) *neque vērō cum aliquid mandāverat cōfectum putābat* (Cat. lii. 16), *but when he had given a thing in charge he did not look on it as done.*

quae si quandō adepta est id quod ei fuerat concupitum, tum fert alacritatē (Tusc. iv. 35), *if it (desire) ever has gained what it had [previously] desired, then it produces joy.*

a. For the Epistolary Pluperfect, see § 282.

3. Future Perfect.

281. The Future Perfect denotes an action as completed in the future: as, —

ut sēmentem fēceris, ita metēs (De Or. ii. 65), *as you sow (shall have sown), so shall you reap.*

carmina tum melius cum vēnerit ipse canēmus (Ecl. ix. 67), *then shall we sing our songs better, when he himself has come.*

si illius insidiae clariōres hāc luce fuerint tum dēnique obsecrābō (Mil. 6), *when the plots of that man have been shown to be as clear as day-light, then, and not till then, shall I conjure you.*

¹ Cf. *dētestor*, *reminiscor*, *sciō*, *soleō*.

ego certē meum officium praestiterō (B. G. iv. 25), *I at least will have done my duty* (i.e. when the time comes to reckon up the matter, I will be found to have done it, whatever the event)

REMARK.—The Future Perfect is used with much greater exactness in Latin than in English, and may even be used instead of the Future, from the fondness of the Latins for representing an action as completed: as,—

quid inventum sit paulō post viderō (Acad. ii. 76), *what has been found out I will see presently.*

qui Antōnium oppresserit bellum taeterrimum cōfecerit (Fam. x. 19), *whoever crushes* (shall have crushed) *Antony will finish* (will have finished) *a most loathsome war.*

NOTE.—For the future perfect in future conditions, see § 307. c.

III. EPISTOLARY TENSES.

282. In Letters, the Perfect Historical or the Imperfect may be used for the present, and the Pluperfect for any past tense, as if the letter were *dated* at the time it is supposed to be *received*: as,—

neque tamen, cum haec scribēbam, eram nescius quantis oneribus premerēre (Fam. v. 12), *nor while I write this am I ignorant under what burdens you are weighed down.*

ad tuās omnēs [epistolās] rescripseram pridie (Att. ix. 10), *I [have] answered all your letters yesterday.*

cum quod scriberem ad tē, nihil habērem, tamen hās dedī litterās (Att. ix. 16), *though I have nothing to write you, still I write this letter.*

NOTE.—In this use these tenses are called the Epistolary Imperfect and Pluperfect. The epistolary tenses are not used with any uniformity, but only when attention is particularly directed to the *time of writing*. (So especially *scribēbam*, *dabam*, etc.).

IV. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

283. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Independent Clauses denote time in relation to the time of the *speaker*. The Present always refers to *future* (or *indefinite*) *time*, the Imperfect to either *past* or *present*, the Perfect to either *future* or *past*, the Pluperfect always to *past*.

284. In Dependent Clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive were habitually used in certain fixed connections determined by the time of the main verb and the time of the dependent verb together.

NOTE.—The tenses of the Subjunctive were originally used in Dependent clauses (as in Independent), each with its own time in relation to the point of view of the speaker; but in consequence of the natural tendency of language to refer all the parts of a complex sentence to *one time*,—namely, that of the speaker,—the connections in which these tenses were used became fixed. Hence the rules for the *Sequence of Tenses*. These are by no means rigid, but allow many varieties, as is natural from their origin.

Sequence of Tenses.

285. The tenses of the Subjunctive in Dependent clauses follow special rules for the SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

With reference to these rules all tenses when used in *Independent* clauses are divided into two classes,—*primary* and *secondary*.

1. PRIMARY. The *primary tenses* include all forms that express *present* or *future* time. These are the Present, Future, and Future Perfect Indicative, the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, and the Present and Future Imperative.

NOTE.—The Perfect Definite is sometimes treated as primary, but see § 287. *a*.

2. SECONDARY. The *secondary tenses* include all forms that refer to *past* time. These are the Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect Indicative, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Historical Infinitive.

NOTE 1.—To these may be added certain forms less commonly used in Independent Clauses. Such are: (1) Primary. Present Infinitive in Exclamations; (2) Secondary: Perfect Infinitive in Exclamations (see § 287. *a*. note).

NOTE 2.—For the Historical Present, see § 287. *c*; for the Imperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis, see § 287. *g*.

286. The following is the general rule for the SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

In complex sentences a Primary tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect in the dependent clause, and a secondary tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect: as,—

scribit ut nōs moneat, he writes to warn us.

scribet ut nōs moneat, he will write to warn us.

scribe (scribitō) ut nōs moneās, write that you may warn us.

scripsit ut nōs moneret, he wrote to warn us.

scribit quasi oblitus sit, he writes as if he had forgotten.

scripsit quasi oblitus esset, he wrote as if he had forgotten.

rogō quid factūrus sis, I ask what you are going to do.

NOTE.—The beginner must observe that the rule affects only the tenses of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses. The tenses of the other moods and those of the Subjunctive in independent constructions (as in apodosis contrary to fact, § 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses. (But cf. §§ 338. *a*. note 2, 339. note 2.)

REMARK. — In applying the rule for the sequence of tenses, observe (1) whether the main verb is (a) primary or (b) secondary, (2) whether the dependent verb is to denote completed action (*i.e.* past with reference to the main verb) or incomplete (*i.e.* present or future with reference to the main verb). Then —

(a) If the leading verb is *primary*, the dependent verb must be in the *Present* if it denotes *incomplete action*, in the *Perfect* if it denotes *completed action*.

(b) If the leading verb is *secondary*, the dependent verb must be in the *Imperfect* if it denotes *incomplete action*, in the *Pluperfect* if it denotes *completed action*. Thus, —

he writes (primary) *to warn* (incomplete) *us*, scribit ut nōs moneat.

I ask (primary) *what you were doing* (now past), rogō quid fēceris.

Notice that the *Future Perfect* denotes action completed (at the time referred to), and hence is represented in the Subjunctive by the *Perfect* or *Pluperfect*. Thus, —

I ask what you will have accomplished, rogō quid perfēceris.

he asked what he would have accomplished, rogāvit quid perfēcisset.

287. In the Sequence of Tenses some special points are to be noted : —

a. The Perfect Indicative is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind. Thus, —

ut satis esset praesidi prōvisum est (Cat. ii. 26), *provision has been made that there should be ample guard.* [Secondary sequence.]

addūxi hominem in quō satisfacere exteris nātiōibus possētis (Verr. i. 2), *I have brought a man in whose person you can make satisfaction to foreign nations.* [Secondary sequence.]

est enim rēs iam in eum locum addūcta, ut quamquam multum intersit inter eōrum causās quī dimicant, tamen inter victoriās nōn multum interfutūrum putem (Fam. v. 21, 3), *for affairs have been brought to such a pass that, though there is a great difference between the causes of those who are fighting, still I do not think there will be much difference between their victories.* [Primary sequence.]

ea adhibita doctrina est quae vel vitiōsissimam nātūram excolere possit (Q. Fr. i. 1, 7), *such instruction has been given as can train even the faultiest nature.* [Primary sequence.]

NOTE. — The Perfect Infinitive in exclamations follows the same rule: as, —

adeō rem rediisse patrem ut extimēscam (Ter. Ph. 153), *to think things have come to such a pass that I should dread my father.*

b. After a primary tense the Perfect Subjunctive is regularly used to denote *any past action*. Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, —

1. A Perfect Definite: as, —

nōn dubitō quin omnēs tui scripserint (Fam. v. 8), *I do not doubt that all your friends have written.* [Direct statement: scripserunt.]

quārē nōn ignōrō quid accidat in ūltimis terris, cum audierim in Ītaliā querēlās civium (Q. Fr. i. 1, 33), *therefore I know well what happens at the ends of the earth, when I have heard in Italy the complaints of citizens.* [In a direct statement, audīvī.]

2. A Perfect Historical: as, —

mē autem hic laudat quod retulerim, nōn quod patefēcērim (Att. xii. 21), *me he praises because I brought the matter [before the senate], not because I brought it to light.* [Direct statement: retulit.]

3. An Imperfect: as, —

si forte ceciderint tum intellegitur quam fuerint inopēs amicōrum (Lael. 15, 53), *if by chance they fall (have fallen), then one can see how poor they were in friends.* [Direct question: quam inopēs erant?]

quī status rērum fuerit cum hās litterās dedi scire poteris ex C. Tidiō Strabhōne (Fam. xii. 6), *what the condition of affairs was when I wrote this letter, you can learn from Strabo.* [Direct question: quī erat?]

quam civitātī cārus fuerit maerōre fūneris indicātum est (Laelius 11), *how dear he was to the State has been shown by the grief at his funeral.* [Direct question: quam cārus erat?]

ex epistulis intellegi licet quam frequēs fuerit Platōnis auditor (Or. 15), *it may be understood from his letters how constant a hearer he was of Plato.* [Direct question: quam frequēs erat?]

NOTE. — Thus the Perfect Subjunctive may represent, not only a Perfect Definite or a Perfect Historical of a direct statement or question, but an Imperfect as well. This comes from the want of any special tense of the subjunctive to express continued action after a primary tense. Thus, *miror quid fēcērit* may mean (1) *I wonder what he has done*, (2) *I wonder what he did (hist. perf.)*, or (3) *I wonder what he was doing.*

c. In clauses of Result, the Perfect subjunctive is very often (the Present rarely) used after secondary tenses: as, —

Hortēnsius ardēbat dicendī cupiditāte sic ut in nūllō unquam flagrantius studium viderim (Bru. 302), *Hortensius was so hot with desire of speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man.*

Siciliam Verrēs per triennium ita vēxāvit ac perdidit, ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nūllō modō possit (Ver. i. 12), *for three years Verres so racked and ruined Sicily, that she can in no way be restored to her former state.* [Here the Present is used in describing a state of things actually existing.]

videor esse cōsecūtus ut nōn possit Dolābella in Ītaliā pervenire (Fam. xii. 14), *I seem to have brought it about that Dolabella cannot come into Italy.*

REMARK. — This construction emphasizes the result; the regular construction subordinates it.

NOTE. — There is a special fondness for the Perfect Subjunctive to represent a Perfect Indicative. Thus, —

Thorius erat ita nōn superstitiōsus ut illa plūrima in suā patriā et sacrificia et fāna contemneret; ita nōn timidus ad mortem ut in aciē sit ob rem publicam interfectus (Finib. ii. 63), *Thorius was so little superstitious that he despised [contemnēbat] the many sacrifices and shrines in his country; so little timorous about death that he was killed [interfectus est] in battle, in defence of the State.*

Zēnō nullō modō is erat qui nervōs virtūtis inciderit (cf. § 279. d); sed contrā qui omnia in ūna virtūte pōneret (Acad. i. 35), *Zeno was by no means one to cut the sinews of virtue; but one, on the contrary, who made everything depend on virtue alone. [incidit . . . pōnēbat.]*

erant enim nobis perirātī, quasi quicquam dē nostrā salūte dēcrēvissēmus quod nōn idem illis cēsuissēmus aut quasi ūtilius rei publicae fuerit eos etiam ad bestiārum auxilium cōfugere quam vel ēmori vel cum spē vivere (Fam. ix. 6, 3), *for they were very angry with us, just as if we had voted for anything in regard to our own preservation which we had not advised them also, or as if it were more advantageous to the state for them to fly for help to brutes than either to die or to live in hope. [Without quasi, dēcrēverāmus and fuit would have been used.]*

d. A general truth after a past tense follows the sequence of tenses: as, —

ex his quae tribuisset sibi quam mutābilis esset reputābat (Q. C. iii. 8), *from what she (Fortune) had bestowed on him, he reflected how inconsistent she is. [Direct: mutābilis est.]*

ibi quantam vim ad stimulandōs animōs ira habēret appāruit (Liv. xxxiii. 37), *here it appeared what power anger has to goad the mind. [Direct: habet.]*

NOTE. — In English the original tense is more commonly kept.

e. The Historical Present (§ 276. d) is sometimes felt as a *primary*, sometimes as a *secondary* tense. Accordingly it is followed by either the primary or the secondary sequence, more commonly by the secondary. Thus, —

rogat ut cūret quod dixisset (Quinc. 18), *he asks him to attend to the thing he had spoken of.*

castella commūnit quō facilius prohibēre posset (B. G. i. 8), *he strengthens the forts that he might more easily keep them off.*

NOTE. — After the historical present, cum temporal with the subjunctive must follow the secondary sequence.

f. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) are not affected by the sequence of tenses: as, —

quia tāle sit, ut vel si ignōrārent hominēs, etc. (Finib. ii. 49), *because it is such that even if men were ignorant, etc.*

g. The Imperfect Subjunctive in present conditions contrary to fact (§ 308) is regularly followed by the secondary sequence: as, —

si alii cōsulēs essent, ad tē potissimum, Paulle, mitterem, ut eōs mihi quam amicissimōs redderēs (Fam. xv. 13), *if there were other consuls, I should send to you, Paulus, in preference to all, that you might make them as friendly to me as possible.*

si eōs dicerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem exciperēs (Tusc. i. 9), *if you called those wretched who must die, you would except no one.*

h. The Present is sometimes followed by a secondary sequence, seemingly because the writer is thinking of past time (*Synesis*): as, —

sed si rēs cōget, est quiddam tertium, quod neque Seliciō nec mihi displicēbat; ut neque iacere rem paterēmur, etc. (Fam. i. 5. a), *but if the case shall demand, there is a third [course] which neither Selicius nor myself disapproved, that we should not allow, etc.* [Here Cicero is led by the time of displicēbat.]

sed tamen ut scīrēs haec tibi scrībō (Fam. xiii. 47), *but yet that you may know, I write thus.* [As if he had used the common epistolary imperfect scrībēbam (§ 282).]

cūius praecepti tanta vis est ut ea nōn homini cuiquam sed Delphicō deō tribuerētur (Leg. i. 58), *such is the force of this precept, that it was ascribed not to any man, but to the Delphic god.* [The precept was an old one.]

NOTE. — The rules for the sequence of tenses must not be regarded as inflexible. They were often disregarded by the Romans themselves, either from carelessness or purposely for one reason or another.

i. When a clause depends upon one already dependent, the sequence becomes secondary as soon as the time is thrown back into the past by any form that represents past time: as, —

sed tamen quā rē acciderit ut ex meis superiōribus litteris id suspicārēre nesciō (Fam. ii. 16), *but yet how it happened that you suspected this from my previous letter, I don't know.*

tantum profēcisse vidēmur ut ā Graecis nē verbōrum quidem cōpiā vincerēmur (Nat. D. i. 8), *we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.*

But, — beatē vixisse videor quia cum Scipione vixerim (Laelius 15, *I seem to have lived happily in that I have lived with Scipio* (who had just died).

NOTE. — For the application of this rule to Indirect Discourse, see § 336. B. note.

V. TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

288. The tenses of the Infinitive denote *present, past, or future* time, relatively to the time of the verb on which they depend: as, —

nostrōs nōn esse inferiōres intellēxit (B. G. ii. 8), *he ascertained that our men were not inferior.* [Direct: sunt.]

quam Iūnō fertur terris magis omnibus coluisse (*Æn.* i. 15), *which Juno is said to have cherished above all lands.* [Direct: colēbat]
 spērant sē maximum fructum esse captūrōs (*Lael.* 79), *they hope they shall receive the greatest advantage.* [Direct: capiēmus.]

a. After past tenses of verbs of *necessity*, *propriety*, and *possibility* (as *potuī*, *dēbuī*, and *oportuit*) the present infinitive must be rendered by the Perfect infinitive in English: as, —

scīre potuit (*Milo*, 46), *he might have known.*

quī vidēbātur omnino morī nōn dēbuisse (*Arch.* 17), *who seemed [one that] ought not to have died at all.*

b. For the tenses of the infinitive in Indirect Discourse, see § 336. A.

c. Except in indirect discourse, the Present is the only tense of the infinitive in common use. It has no distinct reference to time. Thus, —

est adulescentis māiores nātū verērī (*Of.* i. 122), *it is [the duty] of a youth to reverence his elders.*

d. After verbs of *wishing*, *necessity*, and the like,¹ the Perfect Passive infinitive is often used instead of the Present: as, —

nōllem factum, *I regret it* (I could wish it not done). [The Latin form of *apology*.]

domesticā cūrā tē levātum [esse] volō (*Q. F.* iii. 9), *I wish you relieved of household care.*

quod iam pridem factum esse oportuit (*Cat.* i. 5), *which ought to have been done long ago* (cf. a, above).

NOTE.—The participle in this case is rather in predicate agreement (with or without *esse*) than used to form a strict perfect infinitive though the full form can hardly be distinguished from that construction; cf. *mātūrātō opus est*, *there is need of haste* (§ 292. b) and *I pray thee have me excused*.

REMARK.—In early and late Latin, and in poetry, rarely in good prose, the Perfect Active infinitive is also used instead of the Present, and even after other verbs than those of *wishing* and the like: as, —

commisissae cavet (*Hor. A. P.* 168), *he is cautious of doing.*

haud equidem premendō alium mē extulisse vclim (*Liv.* xxii. 59), *I would not by crushing another exalt myself.*

sunt qui nōlint tetigisse (*Hor. Sat.* i. 2), *there are those who would not touch.*

statim vicisse dēbeō (*Rosc. Am.* 73), *I ought to win my case* (I must be regarded as having won it).

nōllem dixisse (*Ver.* iv. 43), *I would not say*

e. After verbs of *feeling* the Perfect infinitive is used, especially by the poets, to denote a completed action.

¹ Chiefly *volō*, *nōlō*, *mālō*, *oportet*, *deceat*.

So also with *satis est*, *satis habet*, *melius est*, *contentus sum*, and in a few other cases where the distinction of time is important. Thus, —

nōn paenitēbat intercapēdinem scribendi fēcisse (Fam. xvi. 21), *I was not sorry to have made a respite of writing.*

pudet mē nōn praestitisse (id. xiv. 3), *I am ashamed not to have shown.*

sunt quos curiculō pulverem Olympicum collēgisse iuvat (Hor. Od. i. 1. 3), *there are those who delight, etc.*

quiesse erit melius (Liv. iii. 48), *it will be better to have kept quiet.*

nil ego si peccem possum nescisse (Ov. Her. xvii. 47), *if I should go wrong, I cannot have done it in ignorance* (am not able not to have known).

f. The Future Infinitive is often expressed by *fore* (or *futūrum esse*) *ut* with the subjunctive; so necessarily in verbs which have no supine stem (cf. §§ 302. Rem., 332. *e*). Thus, —

spērō fore ut contingat id nobis (Tus. i. 82), *I hope that will be our happy lot.*

II.—NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS.

The several Noun and Adjective forms associated with the verb are employed as follows: —

- | | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| | | 1. Attributive (§ 291 and <i>a</i>). |
| | | 2. Simple Predicate (§ 291. <i>b</i>). |
| | | 3. Periphrastic Perfect (passive) (§ 291. R.). |
| | | 4. Predicate of Circumstance (§ 292). |
| | | 5. Descriptive (Indirect Discourse) (§ 292. <i>c</i>). |
| 1. PARTICIPLES: | <i>a.</i> Present and Perfect | 1. Periphrastic with <i>esse</i> (§ 293. <i>a</i>). |
| | <i>b.</i> Future | 2. Periphrastic with <i>ful</i> (= Pluperfect Subjunctive) (§ 293. <i>c</i>). |
| | <i>c.</i> Gerundive | 1. As Descriptive Adjective (§ 294. <i>a</i>). |
| | | 2. Periphrastic with <i>esse</i> (§ 294. <i>b</i>). |
| | | 3. Of Purpose with certain verbs (§ 294. <i>d</i>). |
| 2. GERUND OR GERUNDIVE: | | 1. Genitive as Objective Genitive (§ 298). |
| | | 2. Dative, with Adjectives (of Fitness), Nouns, Verbs (§ 299). |
| | | 3. Accusative, with certain Prepositions (§ 300). |
| | | 4. Ablative, of Means, Comparison, or with Prepositions (§ 301). |
| 3. SUPINE: | | 1. Former Supine (in -um), with Verbs of Motion (§ 302). |
| | | 2. Latter Supine (in -a), chiefly with Adjectives (§ 303). |

I.—PARTICIPLES.

289. The Participle expresses the action of the verb in the form of an Adjective; but has a partial distinction of tense, and may govern a case.

NOTE. — Thus the participle combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. As an adjective, it limits substantives, and agrees with them in gender, number, and case (§ 186). As a verb, it has distinctions of time (§ 290), and often takes an object.

1. Distinctions of Tense.

290. Participles denote time as *present, past, or future* with respect to the time of the verb in their clause.

Thus the Present Participle represents the action as *in progress* at the time indicated by the tense of the verb, the Perfect as *completed*, and the Future as *still to take place*.

a. The Present Participle has several of the special uses of the Present Indicative. Thus it may denote: —

1. An action continued in the present but begun in the past (§ 276. *a*): as, —

quaerenti mihi iamdiu certa res nulla veniebat in mentem (Fam. iv. 13),
though I had long sought, no certain thing came to my mind.

2. Attempted action (§ 276. *b*): as, —

Flaminiō restitit agrum Picentem dividenti (Cat. M. 11), *he resisted Flaminius when attempting to divide the Picene territory.*

3. Futurity or Purpose (§ 276. *c*): as, —

Eurypylum scitantes oracula mittimus (Æn. ii. 114), *we send Eurypylus to consult the oracle.*

b. The Perfect Participle of a few deponent verbs is used nearly in the sense of a Present.

Such are, regularly, *ratus, solitus, veritus*; commonly, *fusus, ausus, secutus*, and occasionally others, especially in later writers. Thus, —

cohortatus militēs docuit (B. C. iii. 80), *encouraging the men, he showed.*

iratus dixisti (Mur. 62), *you spoke in a passion.*

oblitus auspicia (Phil. i. 31), *forgetting the auspices.*

insidiās veritus (B. G. ii. 11), *fearing ambuscade.*

imperio potitus (Liv. xxi. 2), *holding the command.*

ad pugnam congressi (id. iv. 10), *meeting in fight.*

rem incredibilem rati (Sall. Cat. 48), *thinking the thing incredible.*

c. The Latin has no Present Participle in the passive. The place of such a form is supplied usually by a clause with *dum* or *cum*, rarely by the participle in *-us* (cf. p. 314, foot-note): as, —

nullis evidentibus causis obire dum calceantur matutino duo Caesarēs (Plin. N. H. vii. 181), *from no obvious cause two Caesars died while having their shoes put on in the morning.*

mōque ista delectant cum Latīnē dicuntur (Academ. i. 18), *those things please me when they are spoken in Latin*
crucibus affixi aut flammandi (Tac. Ann. xv. 44), *crucified or set on fire*
(in flames).

NOTE. — The constructions with *dum* and *cum* are often used when a participle might be employed: as, —

dic, hospes, Spartae, nōs tē hic vidisse iacentes, dum sanctis patriae lēgibus obsequimur, *tell it, stranger, at Sparta, that you saw us lying here obedient to our country's sacred laws.* [Here *dum obsequimur* is a translation of the Greek present participle *πειθόμενοι*.]

dum [Ulixēs] sibi, dum sociis reditum parat (Hor. Ep. i. 2. 21), *Ulysses, while securing the return of himself and his companions.* [In Greek: *ἀπρόσμενος*.]

d. The Latin has no Perfect Participle in the active voice. The deficiency is supplied —

1. In deponents by the perfect passive form with its regular active meaning: as, —

nam singulās [nāvēs] nostri cōnsectāti expūgnāverunt (B. G. iii. 15), *for our men having overtaken them one by one, captured them by boarding.*

2. In other verbs, either by the ablative absolute with a change of voice (§ 255. d, note) or by a clause (especially with *cum* or *dum*): as, —

Itaque convocātis centuriōnibus milites certiores facit (B. G. iii. 5), *and so, having called the centurions together, he informs the soldiers* (the centurions having been called together).

cum vēnisset animadvertit collem (id. vii. 44), *having come (when he had come), he noticed a hill.*

NOTE. — The perfect participle of several deponent verbs may be either active or passive in meaning (§ 135. d).

2. Adjective Use.

291. The Present and Perfect participles are used sometimes as attributive, nearly like adjectives: as, —

cum antiquissimam sententiam tum comprobātam (Div. i. 11), *a view at once most ancient and well approved.*

signa nunquam fere ēmentientia (id. 15), *signs hardly ever deceitful.*

auspiciis utuntur coactis (id. 27), *they use forced auspices.*

a. Participles often become complete adjectives, and may be compared or used as nouns. Thus, —

quō mulieri cunct res cautior (Cæcina 11), *that the matter might be more secure for the woman.*

in illis artibus præstantissimus (De Orat. i. 217), *pre-eminent in those*

sibi indulgentēs et corpori dēservientēs (Leg. i. 39), *the self-indulgent, and slaves to the body* (indulging themselves and serving the body).

rēctē facta paria esse dēbent (Paradox. 22), *right deeds* (things rightly done) *ought to be like in value* (see § 207. c).

male par̄ta male dilābuntur (Phil. ii. 65), *ill got, ill spent* (things ill-acquired, etc.).

coñsuetūdō valentis (De Or. ii. 186), *the habit of a man in health*.

b. Participles are often used as Predicate Adjectives. As such they may be joined to the subject by *esse* or a copulative verb (see §§ 186. b, 176. a): as, —

Gallia est dīvis̄a (B. G. i. 1), *Gaul is divided*. *

locus quī nunc saeptus est (Liv. i. 8), *the place which is now enclosed*.

vidētis ut senectūs sit operōsa et semper agēns aliquid et mōliēns (C. M. 26), *you see how busy old age is, always aiming and trying at something*.

nēmō adhūc convenire voluit cui fuerim occupātus (Cato Major 32), *nobody hitherto has [ever] wished to converse with me, to whom I have been "engaged."*

REMARK. — From this predicate use arise the compound tenses of the passive, — the participle of *completed action* with the incomplete tenses of *esse* developing the idea of past time: as *interfectus est*, *he was* (or *has been*) *killed*, lit., *he is having-been-killed* (i.e. already slain).

In the best writers (as Cicero), the perfect participle, when used with *ful*, etc., retains its proper force; but in later writers the two sets of tenses (as *amātus sum* or *ful*) are often used indiscriminately to form the tenses of the perfect system in the passive: as, —

[lēgēs] cum quae lāt̄ae sunt tum vērō quae pr̄mulgāt̄ae fuērunt (Sest. 55), *the laws, both those which were proposed, and those which were published*. [The proposal of the laws was a single act: hence *lāt̄ae sunt* is a compound perfect. The *publishing*, or *posting*, was a continued state, which is indicated by the participle *pr̄mulgāt̄ae*, and *fuērunt* is the perfect of the copula.]

arma quae fīxa in parietibus fuerant, humi inventa sunt (Div. i. 74), *the arms which had been fastened on the walls were found upon the ground*. [Cf. *occupātī sunt* et *fuērunt* (Off. i. 57), *are and have been engaged*. The difference between this and *arma quae*, etc., is, that *occupātus* in this sense is used only as an adjective.]

3. Predicate Use.

292. The Present and Perfect participles are often used as a predicate, where in English a phrase or clause would be usual.

In this use the participles express *time, cause, occasion, condition, concession, characteristic* (or *description*), *manner, means, attendant circumstances*. Thus, —

volventēs hostilia cadāvera amicum reperiebant (Sall. Cat. 61), *while rolling over the corpses of the enemy they found a friend.* [Time.]
paululum commorātus, signa canere iubet (Sall. Cat. 59, 1), *after delaying a little while, he orders to give the signal.* [Time.]
longius prōsequi veritus, ad Cicerōnem pervēnit (B. G. v. 52), *because he feared to follow further, he came to Cicero.* [Cause.]
quō sciret laxās dare iūssus habēnās (Æn. i. 63), *who might know how to give them loose rein when bidden.* [Occasion.]
damnātum poenam sequi oportebat (B. G. i. 4), *if condemned, punishment must overtake him.* [Condition.]
salūtem inspērantibus reddidisti (Marc. 21), *you have restored a safety which we did not hope.* [Concession.]
Dardanius caput ecce puer dētēctus (Æn. x. 133), *the Trojan boy with his head uncovered.* [Description.]
nec trepidēs in ūsum poscentis aevi pauca (Hor. Od. ii. 11. 5), *be not anxious for the needs of age that demands little.* [Characteristic.]
incitātī fuga montēs altissimōs petēbant (B. C. iii. 93), *in headlong flight they made for the highest mountains.* [Manner.]
militēs sublevātī aliī ab aliīs māgnam partem itineris cōficerent (B. C. i. 68), *the soldiers helped up by each other, etc.* [Means.]
hōc laudāns, Pompēius idem iūrāvit (B. C. iii. 87), *approving this, Pompey took the same oath.* [Attendant circumstance.]
aut sedēns aut ambulāns disputābam (Tuscul. i. 7), *I conducted the discussion either sitting or walking.* [Circumstance.]

REMARK.—These uses are especially frequent in the ablative absolute (§ 255. d). A co-ordinate clause is sometimes compressed into a perfect participle: as,—

instrūctōs ōrdinēs in locum æquum dēducit (Sall. Cat. 59), *he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground.*
ut hōs trāslūctōs necāret (B. G. v. 5), *that he might carry them over and put them to death.*

NOTE 1.—A participle with a negative often expresses the same idea which in English is given by *without* and a verbal noun: as,—

miserum est nihil prōficiētem angī (N. D. iii. 14), *it is wretched to vex oneself without effecting anything.*

NOTE 2.—**Acceptum** and **expēnsum** as predicates with **ferre** and **referre** are book-keeping terms: as,—

quās pecūniās ferēbat eis **expēnsās** (Verr. ii. 170), *what sums he charged to them.*

a. A noun and a passive participle are often so united that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea: ¹ as,—

ante conditam **condendamve** urbem (Liv. Pref.), *before the city was built or building.*

¹ Compare the participle in indirect discourse in Greek (Goodwin's Greek Grammar, § 580); and the English, "Twas at the royal feast for Persia won" (Dryden), *i.e. for the conquest of Persia.*

illi libertātem civium Rōmānōrum īmīnūtā nōn tulērunt; vōs vitam ēreptā neglegētis (Manil. 11), *they did not endure the infringement of the citizens' liberty; will you disregard the destruction of their life?*
 post hominēs nātōs (Brutus, 224), *since the creation of man.*
 iam ā conditā urbe (Phil. iii. 9), *even from the founding of the city.*

b. The perfect participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with *opus*, *need* (cf. § 243. *e*): as, —

opus factō est viaticō (Plaut. Trin. 887), *there is need of laying in provision.*

mātūrātō opus est (Liv. viii. 13), *there is need of haste.*

NOTE. — The omission of the noun in agreement gives rise to complex constructions: as, —

quid opus factōst, *what must be done?* [A mixture of *quid opus est fieri?* and *quō factō opus est?*]

c. The perfect participle with *habēō* (rarely with other verbs) has almost the same meaning as a perfect active, but denotes the *continued effect* of the action of the verb:¹ as, —

fidem quam habent spectātā iam et diū cōgnitā (Div. C. 11), *my fidelity, which they have proved and long known.*

cohortēs in acie lxxx. cōstitūtās habēbat (B. C. iii. 89), *he had eighty cohorts stationed in line of battle.*

nefāriōs ducēs captōs iam et comprehēnsōs tenētis (Catil. iii. 16), *you have captured and hold in custody the infamous leaders, etc.*

d. A verb of *effecting* or the like may be used in combination with the perfect participle of a transitive verb to express the action of that verb more forcibly: as, —

praefectōs suos multī missōs fecērunt (Ver. iii. 134), *many discharged their officers (made dismissed).*

hic trānsactum reddet omne (Plaut. Capt. 345), *he will get it all done (restore it finished).*

ademptum tibi iam faxō omnem metum (Ter. Haut. 341), *I will relieve you of all fear (make it taken away).*

illam tibi incēnsam dabō (Ter. Ph. 974), *I will make her angry with you.*

NOTE. — Similarly *volō* (with its compounds) and *cupiō*, with a perfect participle without *esse* (cf. § 288 *d.* note): as, —

mē excūsātum volō (Ver. ii. 1. 103), *I wish to be excused (I want myself excused, cf. I pray thee have me excused).*

qui te conventum cupit (Plaut. Curc. 304), *who wants to meet you (wants you met).*

¹ The perfect with *have*, in modern languages of Latin stock, has grown out of this use of *habēō*.

e. After verbs denoting an *action of the senses* the present participle in agreement with the object is nearly equivalent to the infinitive of indirect discourse (§ 336), but expresses the action more vividly: as, —

ut eum nēmō unquam in equō sedentem viderit (Verr. v. 27), *so that no one ever saw him sitting on a horse.* [Cf. Tusc. iii. 31.]

NOTE. — The same construction is used after faciō, inducō, and the like, with the name of an author as subject: as, —

Xenophōn facit Sōcratem disputantem (N. D. i. 31), *Xenophon represents Socrates disputing.*

4. Future Participle.

293. The Future Participle (except futūrus and ventūrus) is rarely used in simple agreement with a noun, except by later writers.

a. The future participle is chiefly used with esse (which is often omitted) in the active periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as, —

morere, Diagorā, nōn enim in caelum adscēnsūrus es (Tus. i. 111), *die, for you are not likely to rise to heaven.*

spērat adolēscēns diū sē victūrum (Cat. Maj. 68), *the young man hopes to live long (that he shall live long).*

neque petītūrus unquam cōsulātum vidērētur (Off. iii. 79), *and did not seem likely ever to be a candidate for the consulship.*

b. By later writers and the poets the future participle is also used in simple agreement with a substantive to express: —

1. Likelihood or certainty: as, —

ausus est rem plūs fāmae habitūram (Liv. ii. 10), *he dared a thing which would have more repute.*

2. Purpose, intention, or readiness: as, —

cum leō rēgem invāsūrus incurreret (Q. C. viii. 1), *when a lion rushed on to attack the king.*

rediit belli cāsum dē integrō tentātūrus (Liv. xvii. 62), *he returned to try the chances of war anew.*

dispensōs per agrōs militēs equitibus invāsūris (id. xxxi. 36), *while the horse were ready to attack the soldiers scattered through the fields.* [A rare use of the Ablative Absolute.]

si peritūrus abis (Æn. ii. 675), *if you are going away to perish.*

3. Apodosis: as, —

dedit mihi quantum maximum potuit, datūrus amplius si potuisset (Plin. Ep. iii. 21), *he gave me as much as he could, ready to give me more if he had been able.*

c. With past tenses of *esse*, the future participle is often equivalent to the pluperfect subjunctive (see § 308. d).

5. Gerundive (Future Passive Participle).

NOTE.—The participle in *-dus*, commonly called the Gerundive, has two distinct uses:—

- (1) Its predicate and attribute use as participle or adjective (§ 294).
- (2) Its use with the meaning of the gerund (§ 295). This may be called its *gerundive* use.

294. The gerundive when used as a Participle or an Adjective is always passive, denoting *necessity* or *propriety*.

In this use of the gerundive the following points are to be observed (a-d).

a. The gerundive is sometimes used, like the present and perfect participles, in simple agreement with a noun: as, —

fortem et cōservandum virum (Mil. 104), *a brave man, and worthy to be preserved.*

b. The most frequent use of this form is with *esse* in the second (*passive*) periphrastic conjugation (see § 129): as,

nōn agitanda rēs erit (Verr. v. 179), *will not the thing have to be agitated?*

c. The neuter of the gerundive¹ is occasionally used impersonally with an object. The object is in the case regularly governed by the verb. Thus, —

agitandumst vigiliās (Pl. Tr. 869), *I have got to stand guard.*
via quam nōbis ingrediendum sit (Cat. Maj. 6), *the way we have to enter.*

NOTE.—This use is regular with verbs which take their object in the dative or ablative: as, —

lēgibus pārendum est, *the laws must be obeyed.*
ūtendum exercitātiōibus modicis (Cat. Maj. 36), *we must use moderate exercise.*

d. After verbs signifying *to give, deliver, agree for, have, receive, undertake, demand*,² a gerundive in agreement with the object is used to express purpose: as, —

¹ Sometimes called Nominative of the Gerund. Compare Greek verbal in *-τέος* (Goodwin's Grammar, § 281).

² Such verbs are *accipio*, *adnōto*, *attribuo*, *condico*, *curo*, *dēnōto*, *dēposco*, *dō*, *divido*, *dōno*, *edico*, *edoco*, *fero*, *habeo*, *loco*, *mando*, *obicio*, *permitto*, *peto*, *pōno*, *praebeo*, *prōpōno*, *relinquo*, *rogo*, *suscipio*, *trādo*, *voveo*.

redemptor qui columnam illam condūxerat faciendam (Div. ii. 47), *the contractor who had undertaken to make that column.* [The regular construction with this class of verbs.]

aedem Castoris habuit tuendam (Ver. ii. 1. 150), *he had the temple of Castor to take care of.*

nāvēs atque onera diligenter adservanda cūrābat (id. v. 146), *he took care that the ships and cargoes should be kept.*

II.—GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

295. The Gerund expresses an action of the verb in the form of a verbal noun. As a *noun* the gerund is itself governed by other words; as a *verb* it may take an object in the proper case. Thus, —

ars bene disserendī et vērā ac falsa dīiūdicandī (De Or. ii. 157), *the art of discoursing well, and distinguishing the true and false.*

REMARK. — The nominative of the gerund is supplied by the infinitive. Thus in the example above, the verbal nouns *discoursing* and *distinguishing*, if used in the nominative, would be expressed by the infinitives *disserere* and *dīiūdicāre*.

296. When the Gerund would have an object in the accusative, the Gerundive¹ is generally used instead. The gerundive agrees with its noun, and takes the case which the gerund would have had: as, —

parātiōrēs ad omnia pericula subeunda (B. G. i. 5), *readier to undergo all dangers.* [Here *subeunda* agrees with *pericula*, which is itself governed by *ad*. The construction with the gerund would be, *ad subeundum pericula*; *ad* governing the gerund, and the gerund governing the accusative *pericula*.]

exercendae memoriae grātiā (C. M. 38), *for the sake of training the memory.* [Here the gerund construction would be *memoriam exercendī grātiā*.]

plērisque in rēbus gerendis tarditās odiōsa est (Phil. vi. 7), *in the conducting of most business, sloth is odious.*

¹ The gerundive construction is probably the original one. The participle in *-dus* seems to have had a present passive force (as in *ante condendam urbem* (§ 292. a), *rotundus, volvenda diēs* (Virg.), *flammandī* (Tac.), § 290. c) from which the idea of necessity was developed through that of futurity, as in the development of the subjunctive (see p. 274). *Cōsiliū urbis dēlendae* would have meant *a plan of a city being destroyed* [in process of destruction], then *about to be destroyed*, then *a plan of destroying the city*, the two words becoming fused together as in *ab urbe conditā*.

NOTE.—In this use the gerund and the gerundive are translated in the same way, but have really a different construction. The Gerundive is a *passive* participle, and agrees with its noun, though in translation we change the voice, just as we may translate *vigiliæ agitandæ sunt* (*guard must be kept*) by *I must stand guard*. The Gerund is the neuter of the gerundive used impersonally, but retaining the verbal idea sufficiently to govern an object, as in *agitandum est vigiliâs* (§ 294. c). It may therefore be considered as a noun (cf. *opus est mātūrātō*, § 292. b) with a verbal force (cf. *hanc tātctō*, p. 235. foot-note). See p. 314. foot-note.

The following examples illustrate the parallel constructions of gerund and gerundive : —

GEN. cōsiliū { urbem capiendi } *a design of taking the city.*
 { urbis capiendae }

DAT. dat operam { agrōs colendō) *he attends to tilling the fields.*
 { agris colendis }

Acc. veniunt ad { mihi parendum } they come { to obey me.
 { pacem petendam } { to seek peace.

ABL., terit tempus (scribendo epistulās) he spends time in writing letters.
(scribendis epistulis)

REMARK.—In the gerundive construction the verbs **utor**, **fruor**, etc., are treated like transitive verbs governing the accusative, as they do in early Latin (§ 249. *b*): as,—

expetuntur divitiae ad perfruendās voluptātēs (Of. i. 25), *riches are sought for the enjoyment of pleasures* (for enjoying pleasures).

297. The Gerund and the Gerundive are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns.

1. Genitive.

298. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after nouns or adjectives either as *subjective* or *objective* genitive: as, —

neque cōsiliū habendū neque arma capiendū spatiō datō (B. G. iv. 14),
time being given neither for forming plans nor for taking arms.
[Objective.]

nē cōservandae quidem patriae causā (Of. i. 159), *not even for the sake of saving the country.* [Originally subjective genitive.]

vivendi finis est optimus (Cat. Maj. 72), *it is the best end of living.* [Subjunctive.]

nōn tam commūtandārum rērum quam ēvertendārum cupidōs (Off. ii. 3),
desirous not so much of changing as of destroying the state. [Objective.]

NOTE.—In a few phrases the Infinitive is used with nouns which ordinarily have the genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive. Thus *tempus est abire*, *it is time to depart*.

REMARK.—The genitive of the gerund or gerundive is used (especially in early and late Latin) as a predicate genitive. When so used it often expresses purpose: as,—

quae res vertendae reipublicae solent esse (Verr. ii. 132), *things which generally tend to the overthrow of the commonwealth.*

si arborum trunci dēiciendī operis essent missae (B. G. iv. 17), *in case trunks of trees should be sent down [with the object] of overthrowing the work.* [Pred. gen. like *quās suī commodi fecerat* (v. 8).]

Aegyptum proficiscitur cōgnōscendae antiquitātis (Tac. Ann. ii. 59), *he sets out for Egypt to study old times.*

nē id assentandī magis quam quō habeam grātum facere existumēs (Ter. Ad. 270), *for fear you should think that I do it more for the sake of flattery than because, etc.*

a. The genitive of the gerund is occasionally limited by a noun or pronoun (especially *suī*) in the objective genitive instead of taking a direct object: as,—

ēius videndi cupidus (Ter. Hec. 372), *eager to see her* (eager for a seeing of her).

reiciendi trium iūdicum potestās (Ver. ii. 77), *the power of challenging three jurors* (of the rejecting of three jurors).

suī colligendi facultās (B. G. iii. 6), *the opportunity to recover themselves.*

NOTE.—This construction undoubtedly arose from the fact that the gerund, with the noun (or adjective) on which it depends, was conceived as a compound noun (or adjective) governing an objective genitive (cf. § 217. *b*). Thus *suī colligendi facultās* would be literally, *a chance of a recovering of theirs*. This construction is easily distinguished from that of the gerundive by the fact that the gerund does not agree with the substantive in gender and number.

b. In genitive constructions the Gerund and Gerundive are about equally common.

c. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with *causā* or *grātiā* to denote purpose (see § 318).

NOTE.—This is merely a special use under the main head of § 298.

2. Dative.

299. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after adjectives¹ which take the dative and rarely after nouns (§ 234. *a*): as,—

¹ The dative of the gerund and gerundive occurs most commonly after the adjectives *accommodatus*, *aptus*, *ineptus*, *bonus*, *habilis*, *idoneus*, *pār*, *utilis*, *inutilis*. But the accusative with *ad* is common with most of these (cf. § 234. *d*).

genus armōrum aptum tegendis corporibus (Liv. xxii. 10), *a sort of armor suited to the defence of the body.*

tē sociam studeō scribendis versibus esse (Lucr. i. 25), *I desire that thou (Venus) be my partner in writing verses.*

religua tempora dāmetendis fructibus et percipiendis accommodata sunt (Cat. Maj. 70), *the other seasons are fitted to reap and gather in the harvest.*

perferendis militum mandātis idōneus (Tac. Ann. i. 23), *suitable for carrying out the instructions of the soldiers.*

a. The dative is used in a few expressions after verbs¹: as, —

diem praestitit operi faciendō (Ver. ii. i. 148), *he appointed a day for doing the work.*

praeesse agrō colendō (Rosc. Am. 50), *to take charge of cultivating the land.*

esse solvendō, *to be able to pay* (to be for paying).

NOTE. — This construction is a remnant of a more general use of the dative of the gerund and gerundive.

b. The dative is also used in certain legal phrases after nouns meaning *officers, offices, elections*, etc., to indicate the function or scope of the office, etc.: as, —

comitia cōsultibus rogandis (Div. i. 33), *elections for nominating consuls.*

triumvir coloniis deducendis (Jug. 42), *a triumvir for planting colonies.*

triumviri reipublicae cōstituendae (title of the Triumvirate), *triumvirs (a commission of three) for settling the government.*

3. Accusative.

300. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after the prepositions *ad, inter, circā, ob* (and rarely *in* and *ante*); most frequently after *ad*, denoting Purpose (cf. § 318. b): as, —

mē vocās ad scribendum (Or. 34), *you summon me to write.*

vivis nōn ad dēponendam sed ad cōfirmandam audāciam (Cat. i. 4), *you live, not to put off, but to confirm your daring*

nactus aditūs ad ea cōnanda (B. C. i. 31), *having found means to undertake these things.*

inter agendum (Ecl. ix. 24), *while driving*

NOTE. — The Accusative of the gerund with a preposition never takes a direct object, the Ablative of the gerund very rarely. The Gerundive is used instead (§ 296).

¹ Such are *praeesse, operam dare, diem dicere, locum capere*

4. Ablative.

301. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used (1) to express Manner,¹ Means, Cause, etc.; and (2) after Comparatives; and (3) after the prepositions *ab*, *de*, *ex*, *in*, and (rarely) *pro* and *cum*: as, —

1) *multo pollicendō persuādet* (Jug. 46), *he persuades by large promises.*

Latīnē loquendō cuivis pār (Bru. 128), *equal to any man in speaking Latin.*

nūllis virtūtis praeceptis tradendis (Off. i. 5), *without delivering any precepts of virtue* (by delivering no precepts).

his ipsis legendis (Cat. M. 21), *by reading these very things.*

obscūram atque humilem concientiō ad sē multitudinem (Liv. i. 8), *calling to them a mean and obscure multitude.*

(2) *nūllum officiū referendā grātiā magis necessariū est* (Off. i. 47), *no duty is more important than repaying favors.*

(3) *in rē gerendā versārī* (Cat. M. 17), *to be employed in conducting affairs*

NOTE.—The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is also very rarely used with verbs and adjectives: as,—

Appius nōn abstulit continuandō magistrātum (Liv. ix. 34), *Appius did not desist from continuing his magistracy.*

REMARK.—The gerund is often found co-ordinated with nominal constructions and sometimes even in apposition with a noun: as,—

(1) *in forō, in cūrīā, in amicōrum periculis pulsandis* (Phil. vii. 7), *in the forum, in the senate-house, in defending my friends in jeopardy.*

(2) *ad rēs diversissimās, pārendum atque imperandum* (Liv. xxi. 3), *for the most widely different things, obeying and commanding.*

III.—SUPINE.

NOTE.—The supine is a verbal abstract of the fourth declension (§ 71. a), having no distinction of tense or person, and limited to two uses. (1) The form in *-um* is the accusative of the *end of motion* (§ 258. b, Rem.). (2) The form in *-ū* is usually dative of *purpose* (§ 233), though probably the ablative has been confused with it.

302. The Former Supine (in *-um*) is used after verbs of *motion* to express purpose. It may take an object in the proper case. Thus, —

¹ In this use the ablative of the gerund is, in later writers nearly, and in mediæval writers entirely, equivalent to a present participle: as, *cum quā diūrum flendō sēdisset, quidam miles generōsus iuxta eam equitandō vēnit* (Gesta Romanorum, 66 [58]), *as one day she sat weeping, a certain knight came riding by.* (Compare § 301, 5th example.) From the gerund used as ablative of manner come the Italian and Spanish forms of the present participle (as *mandando, esperando*), the true participial form becoming an adjective in those languages.

quid est, imusne sēssum? etsi monitum vēnimus tō, nōn flāgitātum (De O. iii. 17), *how now, shall we be sealed? though we have come to remind, not to entreat you?*

nūptum dare (collocare), *to give in marriage.*

venērunt questum iniūriās (Liv. iii. 25), *they came to complain of wrongs.*

REMARK.—The supine in -um is especially common with eo; and with the passive infinitive iri forms the future infinitive passive. Thus,—

fuēre civēs qui reipublicam perditum irent (Sall. Cat. 36), *there were citizens who went about to ruin the republic* (cf. § 258, b, Rem.)

nōn Grāis servitum mātibus ibō (Æn. ii. 786), *I shall not go to be a slave to the Grecian dames.*

si scisset se trucidātum iri (Div. ii. 22), *if he (Pompey) had known that he was going to be murdered.* [For the more usual form of the future infinitive, see § 147. c.]

303. The Latter Supine (in -ū)¹ is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns fās, nefās, and opus, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action *in reference to which* the quality is asserted as,—

Ō rem nōn modo visū foedam, sed etiam auditū (Phil. ii. 63), *a thing not only shocking to see but even to hear of.*

quaerunt quid optimum factū sit (Ver. ii. 1. 68), *they ask what is best to do.*
humānum factū aut inceptū (Ter. Andr. 236), *a human thing to do or undertake.*

si hōc fās est dictū (Tusc. v. 38), *if this is lawful to say.*

vidētis nefas esse dictū miseram fuisse tālem senectutem (Cato. M. 13), *you see it is a sin to say that such an old age was wretched*
pudet dictū (Agric. 32), *it is shame to tell.*

NOTE.—The latter supine is thus in appearance an ablative of specification (§ 253), but see § 302, head-note.

REMARK.—The supine in -ū is found especially with such adjectives as indicate an effect on the senses or the feelings, and those which denote *ease, difficulty*, and the like. But with facilis, difficilis, iucundus, and with the gerund is more common. Thus,—

nec visū facilis nec dictū adfabilis ūlli (Æn. iii. 621), *he is not pleasant for any man to look at or address.*

difficilis ad distinguendum similitūdō (De O. ii. 212), *a likeness difficult to distinguish.*

With all these adjectives the poets often use the Infinitive in the same sense: as,—
facilēs aures praeberē (Prop.), *indulgent to lend an ear.*

¹ The only latter supines in common use are auditū, dictū, factū, inventū, memoratū, natū, visū. In classic use this supine is found, in all, in twenty four verbs. It is never followed by an object-case.

CHAPTER IV.—Conditional Sentences.

NOTE.—The Conditional Sentence differs from other compound sentences in this, that the form of the main clause (APODOSIS) is determined in some degree by the nature of the subordinate clause (PROTASIS), upon the truth of which the whole statement depends. Like all compound sentences, however, the Conditional Sentence has arisen from putting together two independent statements, which in time became so closely united as to make one modified statement. Thus *— Speak the word : my servant shall be healed* is an earlier form of expression than *If thou speak the word, etc.*

The Conditional Particles were originally Independent pronouns: thus *si*, *if*, is a weak demonstrative of the same origin as *sic*, *so* (*si-ce* like *hi-ce*, see foot-notes at pp. 65, 67), and has the primitive meaning of *in that way*, or *in some way*.

In its origin the Condition was of two kinds. Either it was assumed and stated *as a fact*, or it was expressed *as a mild command*. From the first have come all the uses of the Indicative in protasis; from the latter all the uses of the Subjunctive in protasis. The Apodosis has either (1) the Indicative, expressing the conclusion *as a fact*; and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive, expressing it originally as *future*—and hence more or less *doubtful*—or (2) the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive expressing it as *futurum in praeteritō*,¹ and so *unfulfilled* in the present or past. Thus *ridēs, māiōre cachinnō concutitur*, *you laugh, he shakes with more boisterous laughter*, is the original form for the Indicative in protasis and apodosis; *si ridēs* originally means merely *you laugh in some way or other*, and so, later, *if you laugh*. So *rogēs Aristonem, neget*, *ask Aristo, he would say no*, is the original form of the subjunctive in protasis and apodosis; *si rogēs* would mean *ask in some way or other*. In *si rogāres, negāret*, the Imperfect *rogāres* transfers the command of *rogēs* to past time,² with the meaning *suppose you had asked*, and *si* would have the same meaning as before; while *negāret* transfers the future idea of *neget* to past time, and means *he was going to deny*.—Now the stating of this supposition at all gives rise to the implication that it is *untrue in point of fact*,—because, if it were true, there would ordinarily be no need to state it as a supposition: for it would then be a simple fact, and as such would be put in the indicative.³ Such a condition or conclusion—originally past, meaning *suppose you had asked* [yesterday], *he was going to deny*—came to express an unfulfilled condition in the present; *suppose (or if) you were now asking, he would* [now] *deny* just as in English *ought*, which originally meant *owed*,⁴ has come to express a present obligation.

¹ The *futurum in praeteritō* is a tense future relatively to a time absolutely past. It denotes a future act transferred to the point of view of past time, and hence is naturally expressed by a past tense of the Subjunctive: thus *dixisset*, *he would have said* = *dictūrus fuit*, *he was about to say* [but did not]. As that which looks towards the future from some point in the past has a natural limit in present time, such a tense (the imperfect subjunctive) came naturally to be used to express a present condition purely ideal, that is to say, contrary to fact.

² Compare *potius diceret*, *he should rather have said* (§ 266, e).

³ There are, however, some cases in which this implication does not arise: as, *decies centēna dedisses, nūl erat in loculis* (Hor. Sat. l. 3. 15), *if you'd given him a million, there was nothing in his coffers*.

⁴ "There was a certain lender which ought him five hundred pices."—*Tyn dal's N. T.*

Conditional Sentences may be classified as follows:—

1. SIMPLE PRESENT OR PAST CONDITIONS, nothing implied as to fulfilment (§ 306).
2. FUTURE CONDITIONS: { *a.* More vivid (§ 307).
 b. Less vivid (§ 307).
3. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT: { *a.* Present (§ 308).
 b. Past (§ 308).
4. GENERAL CONDITIONS: { *a.* Indefinite Subject (§ 309. *a.*).
 b. Repeated Action (§ 309. *b.* *c.*).
5. IMPLIED CONDITIONS: { *a.* Protasis Disguised { 1. in clause of Fact, Wish, Command (§ 310. *b.* *c.*).
 2. in Participial Expression (§ 310. *a.*).
 b. Protasis Omitted { 1. Potential Subjunctive (§ 311. *a.*).
 2. Subjunctive of Modesty (§ 311. *b.*).

1. Protasis and Apodosis.

304. A complete conditional sentence consists of two clauses, the Protasis and the Apodosis.

The clause containing the *condition* is called the PROTASIS; the clause containing the *conclusion* is called the APODOSIS: as, —

- si* qui exire volunt [PROTASIS], cōvivere possum [APODOSIS] (Cat. II. 27),
if any wish to depart, I can keep my eyes shut.
si est in exiliō [PROTASIS], quid amplius postulātis [APODOSIS] (Lig. 13),
if he is in exile, what more do you ask?

NOTE.—It should be carefully noted that the Protasis is the *dependent clause*.

a The Protasis is regularly introduced by the conditional particle *si* (IF) or one of its compounds.

NOTE.—These compounds are *sīn*, *nisi*, *etiamsi*, *etsi*, *tametsi*, *tamenetsi* (see Conditional and Concessive Particles, § 155. *c.*, *d.*). An Indefinite Relative, or any relative or concessive word, may also serve to introduce a conditional clause (see § 316).

b The Apodosis is often introduced by some correlative word or phrase: *as*, *sic*, *ita*, *tum*, *eā condiciōne*, etc. Thus, —

- ita* enim senectūs honesta est, *si* sē ipsa dēfendit (Cat. Maj. 38), *on this condition is old age honorable, if it defends itself.*
si quidem mē amāret, *tum* istūc prōdesset (Ter. Eun. 446), *if he loved me, then this would be profitable.*

NOTE.—In this use *sic* and *eā condiciōne* are rare.

c. The Apodosis is the principal clause of the conditional sentence, but may at the same time be subordinate to some other clause, and so be in the form of a Participle, an Infinitive, or a Phrase: as, —

sepultura quoque prohiberi, ni rex humani iussisset (Q. C. viii. 2), *intending also to deprive him of burial, unless the king had ordered him to be interred.*

quod si praeterea nemo sequatur, tamen se cum sola decima legione iturum [esse] (B. G. i. 40), *but if no one else would follow, he would go with the tenth legion alone.*

si quos adversum proelium commoveret, hos reperire posse (id.), *if the loss of a battle alarmed any, they might find, etc.*

NOTE. — When the Apodosis itself is in Indirect Discourse, or in any dependent construction, the verb of the Protasis is regularly in the Subjunctive (as in the first two of the above examples, see § 337).

d. Conditions are either (1) Particular or (2) General.

1. A Particular Condition refers to a definite act or series of acts occurring at some definite time.

2. A General Condition refers to any one of a class of acts which may occur (or may have occurred) at any time.

2. Classification.

305. The principal or typical Forms of conditional sentences may be exhibited as follows: —

a. SIMPLE CONDITIONS, with *nothing implied* as to fulfilment.

1. Present, *nothing implied*. Present Indicative in both clauses.

si adest, bene est, if he is [now] here, it is well.

2. Past, *nothing implied*. Some past tense of the Indicative in both clauses.

si aderat, bene erat, if he was [then] here, it was well.

si adfuit, bene fuit, if he has been here, it has been well.

b. FUTURE CONDITIONS (necessarily as yet unfulfilled).

1. More vivid.

(a) Future Indicative in both clauses.

si aderit, bene erit, if he is (shall be) here, it will be well.

(β) Future Perfect Indicative in protasis, Future Indicative in apodosis (condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).

¹ Cf. the Greek forms: — a. 1. *ei πράσσει τούτο, καλῶς ἔχει.*

2. *ei ἐπράσσει τούτο, καλῶς εἶχεν.* *ei ἔπραξε τούτο, καλῶς ἔσχεν.*

b. 1. *ὅταν πράσῃ τούτο, καλῶς ἔξει.*

2. *ei πράσσει τούτο, καλῶς ἂν ἔχῃ.*

c. 1. *ei ἐπράσσει τούτο, καλῶς ἂν εἶχεν.*

2. *ei ἔπραξε τούτο, καλῶς ἂν ἔσχευεν.*

d. 1. *ὅταν τις πράσῃ, καλῶς ἔσται.*

2. *ὅτι τις πράσῃ, καλῶς ἔσται.*

si adfuerit, bene erit, if he is (shall have been) here, it will [then] be well
(but it will not begin to be well until he actually is here).

2. Less vivid

(a) Present Subjunctive in both clauses.

si adsit, bene sit, if he should be (or were to be) here, it would be well.

(β) Perfect Subjunctive in protasis, Present Subjunctive in apodosis
(condition thought of as completed before conclusion begins).

si adfuerit, bene sit, if he should be (should have been) here, it would [then] be well.

c. CONDITIONS CONTRARY TO FACT.

1. Present, *contrary to fact*. Imperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.

si adesset, bene esset, if he were [now] here, it would be well (but he is NOT here).

2. Past, *contrary to fact*. Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses.

si adfuisset, bene fuisset, if he had [then] been here, it would have been well (but he was NOT here).

d. GENERAL CONDITIONS. Usually not differing in form from Particular Conditions (a, b, and c); but sometimes distinguished in the cases following:—

1. Present General Condition (Indefinite Time).

(a) Present Subjunctive second person singular in protasis, Present Indicative in apodosis.

si hōc dicās, crēditur, if any one [ever] says this, it is [always] believed.

(β) Perfect Indicative in protasis, Present in apodosis.

si quid dixit, crēditur, if he [ever] says anything, it is [always] believed.

2. Past General Condition (Repeated Action in Past Time).

(a) Imperfect Subjunctive in protasis, Imperfect Indicative in apodosis.

si quid diceret, crēdebātur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed (= whatever he said was always believed).

(β) Pluperfect Indicative in protasis, Imperfect in apodosis.

si quid dixerat, crēdebatur, if he [ever] said anything, it was [always] believed.

REMARK.—The use of tenses in Protasis is very loose in English. Thus *if he is alive now* is a PRESENT condition, to be expressed in Latin by the Present Indicative; *if he is alive next year* is a FUTURE condition, expressed in Latin by the Future Indicative. Again, *if he were here now* is a PRESENT condition *contrary to fact*, and would be expressed by the Imperfect Subjunctive. *If he were to see me thus* is a FUTURE condition less vivid to be expressed by the Present Subjunctive; and so too, *if you advised him, he would attend* may be future less vivid.

3. Present and Past Conditions—Nothing Implied.

306. In the statement of present and past conditions whose falsity is NOT implied, the present and past tenses of the Indicative are used in both Protasis and Apodosis. Thus, —

si tū exercitusque valētis, bene est (Fam. v. 2), *if you and the army are well, it is well.* [Present Condition.]

haec igitur, si Rōmae es; sin abes, aut etiam si ades, haec negotia sic se habent (Att. v. 18), *this, then, if you are at Rome; but if you are away — or even if you are there — these matters are as follows.* [Present.]

si qui magnis ingeniis in eō genere exstiterunt, nōn satis Graecōrum glōriae responderunt (Tuscul. i. 3), *if any men have appeared of great genius in that branch, they have failed to compete with the glory of the Greeks* [Past Condition.]

accepi Rōmā sine epistulā tuā fasciculum litterarum in quō si modo valuisti et Rōmae fuisti Philotimi dūcō esse culpam nōn tuam (Att. v. 17), *I have received from Rome a bundle of letters without any from you, which, provided you have been well and at Rome, I take to be the fault of Philotimus, not yours.* [Mixed: Past condition and present conclusion.]

quās litterās, si Rōmae es, vidēbis putēsne reddendās (Att. v. 18), *as to this letter, if you are at Rome, you will see whether in your opinion it ought to be delivered.* [Mixed: Present and Future.]

si nēmō impetrāvit adroganter rogō (Ligarius 30), *if no one has succeeded in obtaining it, my request is presumptuous.* [Past and Present.]

a. In these conditions, the apodosis need not always be in the Indicative; but may assume any form, according to the sense. Thus, —

si placet . . . videāmus (Cato M. 15), *if you please, let us see.* [Hortatory.]
fuerit hōc cēnsōris, si iudicābat (Div. i. 29), *suppose it was the censor's duty, if he judged it false.* [Hortatory Subjunctive.]

si nōndum satis cernitis, recordāmini (Milon. 61), *if you do not yet see clearly, recollect.* [Imperative.]

si quid habēs certius, velim scire (Att. iv. 10), *if you have any trustworthy information, I should like to know it.* [Subjunctive of Modesty, § 311. b.]

NOTE. — Although the *form* of these conditions does not imply anything as to the truth of the supposition, the sense or the context may of course have some such implication: as, —

nōlite, si in nostrō omnium flētū nullam lacrimam aspexistis Milōnis, hōc minus ei parcere (Milon. 92), *do not, if amid the weeping of us all you have seen no tear [in the eyes] of Milo, spare him the less for that.*

petimus a vobis, iudices, si qua divina in tantis ingentis commendatio debet esse, ut cum in vestram accipiatis fidem (Archias 31), *we ask you, judges, if there ought to be anything in such genius to recommend it to us as by a recommendation of the gods, that you receive him under your protection.*

In these two passages, the protasis really expresses *cause*: but the cause is put by the speaker in the form of a non-committal condition. His hearers are to draw the inference for themselves. In this way the desired impression is made on their minds more effectively than if an outspoken causal clause had been used.

4. Future Conditions.

307. Future Conditions may be *more* or *less vivid*.

1. In a more vivid future condition the protasis makes a distinct supposition of a future case, the apodosis expressing what *will be* the result.

2. In a less vivid future condition, the supposition is less distinct, the apodosis expressing what *would be* the result in the case supposed.

a. In the *more vivid* future condition the Future Indicative is used in both protasis and apodosis: as, —

sânābimur si volēmus (Tus. iii. 13), *we shall be healed if we wish.*

quod si legere aut audire volētis . . . reperietis (Cato M. 20), *if you will [shall wish to] read or hear, you will find.*

NOTE. — In English the protasis is usually expressed by the Present Indicative, rarely by the future with *SHALL*. Often in Latin the Present Indicative is found in the protasis of a condition of this kind (cf. § 276. c). as, —

si vincimus, omnia nobis tuta erunt; sin metu cēsserimus, eadem illa adversa fient (Sall. Cat. 58, 3), *if we conquer, all things will be safe for us; but if we yield through fear, those same things will become hostile.*

si perēō hominum manibus periisse iuvābit (Æn. iii. 606), *if I perish, it will be pleasant to have perished at the hands of men.*

b. In the *less vivid* future condition the Present Subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis: as, —

haec si tecum patria loquātur, nōne impetrāre dēbeat (Cat. i. 19), *if your country should thus speak with thee, ought she not to prevail?*

quod si quis deus mihi largiātur . . . valdē rectissimē (Cat. Maj. 83), *but if some god were to grant me this, I should stoutly refuse.*

REMARK.—The present subjunctive sometimes stands in protasis with the future in apodosis from a change in the point of view of the speaker.¹

c. If the conditional act is regarded as *completed* before that of the apodosis begins, the Future Perfect is substituted for the Future Indicative in protasis, and the Perfect Subjunctive for the Present Subjunctive: as, —

sin cum potuerō, nōn vēnerō, tum erit inimicus (Att. ix. 2), *but if I do not come when I can, he will be unfriendly.*

si nōn fēceris ignōscam (Fam. v. 19), *if you do not do it, I will excuse you.*

REMARK.—The Future Perfect is very often used in the apodosis of a future condition: as, —

vehementer mihi grātum fēceris, si hunc adolēscētem hūmānitāte tuā comprehenderis (Fam. xiii. 15), *you will do (will have done) me a great favor, if you receive this young man with your usual courtesy.*

d. Any form denoting or implying future time may stand in the apodosis of a future condition. So the Imperative, the participles in -*ndus* and -*rus*, and verbs of *necessity*, *possibility*, and the like: as, —

alius finis cōstituendus est si prius quid māximē reprehendere Scipiō solitus sit dixerō (Lael. 59), *another limit must be set if I first state what Scipio was wont most to find fault with.*

si mē praecēperit fātum, vōs mandāsse mementō, *if fate cuts me off too soon, do you remember that I ordered this* (Q. C. ix. 6, 26).

nisi oculis videritis insidiās Milōni ā Clōdiō factās, nec dēprecātūrī sumus nec postulātūrī (Milon. 6), *unless you see with your own eyes the plots laid against Milo by Clodius, I shall neither beg nor demand, etc.*

nōn possum istum accūsāre si cupiam (Ver. iv. 87), *I cannot accuse him if I should desire to.*

e. Rarely the Perfect Indicative is used in apodosis with a Present or even a Future in protasis, to represent the conclusion rhetorically as *already accomplished*: as, —

si hōc bene fixum in animō est, vicistis (Liv. xxi. 44), *if this is well fixed in your minds, you have conquered.* [For you will have conquered.]

si eundem [animum] habueritis, vicimus (id. 43), *if you shall have kept the same spirit, we have conquered.*

f. A future condition is frequently thrown back into past time, without implying that it is contrary to fact (§ 308). In such cases the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive may be used: as,

¹ It often depends entirely upon the view of the writer at the moment, and not upon the nature of the condition, whether it shall be stated vividly or not; as in the proverbial "If the sky falls, we shall catch larks," the impossible condition is ironically put in the vivid form, to illustrate the absurdity of some other supposed condition stated by some one else.

nōn poterat nisi vellet (B. C. iii. 44), *was not able unless he wished.*
 tumulus appāruit . . . si luce palam irētur hosti, praeventurus erat (Liv. xxii. 24), *a hill appeared . . . if they should go openly by light, the enemy would prevent.* [The first two appear like ind. disc., but are not. An observer describing the situations as present ones would say *potest si velit* (etc., see *d*), and no ind. disc. would be thought of. The only difference between these and the third is that in them the forms in *d* are used instead of the subjunctive.]
 Caesar si peteret . . . nōn quicquam prōficeret (Hor. Sat. i. 3. 4), *if even Caesar were to ask he would gain nothing.* [Here the construction is not contrary to fact, but is simply *si petat nōn prōficiat*, thrown into past time.]

5. Conditions Contrary to Fact.

308. In the statement of a supposition *known to be false*, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in both Protasis and Apodosis.¹ The imperfect refers to Present Time, the pluperfect to Past : as, —

quae si exsequi nequīrem, tamen mē lectulus oblectāret meus (Cat. Maj. 38), *if I could not [now] follow this (an active life), yet my couch would afford me pleasure.* [Present.]

nisi tu amississēs, nunquam recēpissēm (id. 11), *unless you had lost it, I should not have recovered it.* [Past.]

si meum cōsiliū auctōritasque valuisset, tū hodiē egērēs, nōs liberi essēmus, rēspūblica nōn tot ducēs et exercitūs amississet (Phil. ii. 37), *if my judgment and authority had prevailed [as they did not], you would this day be a beggar, we should be free, and the republic would not have lost so many leaders and armies.* [Mixed Present and Past.]

qui nisi revertisset, in eō conclavi ei cubandum fuisset, quod proximā nocte conruit : ruina igitur oppressus esset; at id neque si fātum fuerat effūgisset, nec si nōn fuerat in eum cāsus incidisset (Div. ii. 20), *if it had been decreed by fate, he would not have escaped, etc.* [The apodosis of fuerat is not effūgisset, but the whole conditional sentence of which effūgisset is the apodosis; the real protasis of effūgisset is revertisset (cf. § 311. *d*).]

a. In conditions contrary to fact the Imperfect often refers to *past time*, both in protasis and apodosis, especially when a *repeated or continued action* is denoted, or when the condition *if true would still exist*: as, —

¹ The implication of falsity, in this construction, is not inherent in the Subjunctive; but comes from *the transfer of a future condition to past time*. Thus the time for the happening of the condition has, at the time of writing, already passed; so that, if the condition remains a *condition*, it must be *contrary to fact*. So past forms implying a future frequently take the place of the subjunctive in apodosis in this construction (see *d*, below, and head-note, p. 320).

hic si mentis esset suae, ausus esset educere exercitum (Pis. 50), *if he were of sane mind, would he have dared to lead out the army?* [Here *esset* denotes a continued state, past as well as present.]

nōn concidissent, nisi illud receptaculum clāssibus nostris patēret (Verr. ii. 3), [the power of Carthage] *would not have fallen, unless that station had been open to our fleets.* [Without the condition, *patēbat.*]

REMARK.—This use necessarily arises from the fact that the pluperfect is equivalent to a future perfect in *praeteritō*, and so represents the action as completed and *momentary*, rather than as continuing.

b. In the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact the Past tenses of the Indicative may be used to express what was *intended*, or *likely*, or already begun: as,—

si licitum esset mātres veniēbant (Verr. v. 129), *the mothers were coming if it had been allowed* (see § 305. c. 2).

in amplexū filiae ruēbat, nisi lictōres obstitissent (Tac. A. xvi. 32), *he was about rushing into his daughter's arms, unless the lictors had opposed.*

iam tūta tenēham, nī gēns crudēlis ferrō invāsisset (Æn. vi. 358), *I was just reaching a place of safety, had not the fierce people attacked me.*

NOTE.—In such cases the apodosis may be regarded as elliptical. Thus,—

mātres veniēbant (et venissent) si licitum esset, *the matrons were coming (and would have kept on) if it had been allowed.* [So with *paene*, *prope*, etc.]

REMARK.—In this use, the imperfect indicative corresponds in time to the imperfect subjunctive, and the perfect or pluperfect indicative to the pluperfect subjunctive.

c. Verbs and expressions denoting *necessity*, *propriety*, *possibility*, *duty*,¹ when used in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact are regularly put in the Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect Indicative instead of the Subjunctive: as,—

si ita putasset certe optābilis Milōni fuit (Milon. 31), *if he had thought so, surely it would have been preferable for Milo.*

si Rōmae privātus esset hōc tempore, tamen is erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), *if he (Pompey) were at this time a private citizen at Rome, yet he ought to be appointed.*

quod esse caput dēbēbat si probāri posset (Fin. iv. 23), *what ought to be the main point if it could be proved.*

nam nōs decēbat lugēre (Tuscul. i. 115), *for it would befit us to mourn.*

¹ Such are *possum*, *deceat*, *oportet*, *dēbeo*, and the Second Periphrastic Conjugation. Observe that all these expressions contain the idea of futurity (cf. note above). Thus, *deceat mē [hodiē] ire crās*, means *it is proper for me [to-day] to go to-morrow*; and, *decēbat mē [heri] ire hodiē*, *it was proper for me [yesterday] to go to-day*, usually with the implication that *I have not gone as I was bound to.*

NOTE 1.—In this construction it is only the *thing necessary* (etc.) that is conditioned, and not the necessity itself. If the *necessity itself* is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used as with other verbs. The difference is often imperceptible, but may be seen in the following example:—

quid facere potuisssem nisi tum cōsul fuisssem? cōsul autem esse qui potuī nisi eum vitæ cursum tenuisssem ā pueritiā (Rep. i. 10), *what could I have done if I had not then been consul; and how could I have been consul if I had not followed that course of life from boyhood*

NOTE 2.—This construction is sometimes carried still further in poetry: as,—
si nōn alium lactāret odōrem, laurus erat (Georg. ii. 133), *it were a laurel, but for giving out a different odor.*

d. The participle in -ūrus with *eram* or *ful* may take the place of an Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the Apodosis of a condition contrary to fact: as,—

quid enim futūrum fuit [= fuisset], si . . . (Liv. ii. 1), *what would have happened if, etc.*

neque ambigitur quin . . . id factūrus fuerit, si . . . (id.), *nor is there any question he would have done it if, etc.* [Direct: fecisset]

ex quō intellegi potest quam acūtī nātūra sint, qui hæc sine doctrinā credītūrī fuerint (Tusc. i. 48), *hence it may be understood how keen they are by nature, who, without instruction, would have believed this.* [Here the condition is contained in the words *sine doctrinā*.]

adeo parāta seditiō fuit, ut Othōnem raptūrī fuerint, nī incerta noctis timuissent (Tac. H. i. 26), *so far advanced was the conspiracy that they would have seized upon Otho, had they not feared the hazards of the night.* [In a main clause: *rapiuissent nī timuissent.*]

NOTE.—This construction is regularly used when the apodosis is itself a dependent clause requiring the subjunctive, and also in Indirect Discourse. In Indirect Discourse *fuisset* replaces *eram* or *ful* (see § 337).

e. The Present and Perfect subjunctive are sometimes used in poetry in the protasis and apodosis of conditions contrary to fact: as,—

nī comes admoneat, inruat (Æn. vi. 293), *had not his companion warned him, he would have rushed on.*

nī faciat, maria ac terrās ferant (id. i. 58), *unless he did this, they would bear away sea and land.*

NOTE.—This is probably a remnant of an old construction. Its use puts the condition in a vivid form,—as if possible at any moment in the future though now true.

6. General Conditions.

309. General Conditions (§ 304. d) have usually the same forms as Particular Conditions. But they are sometimes distinguished in the following three cases:—

a. The Subjunctive is sometimes used in the *second person singular*, to denote the act of an Indefinite Subject (*you = any one*). Here the Indicative of a *general truth* may stand in the apodosis: as, —

mēns prope uti ferrum est: si exerceās conteritur; nisi exerceās, rūiginem contrahit (Cato de Mor.), *the mind is very like iron: if you use it, it wears away; if you don't use it, it gathers rust.*

virtutem necessariō glōria, etiāsi tū id nōn agās, cōsequitur (Tusc. i. 91), *glory necessarily follows virtue, even if that is not one's aim.*

si prohibita impūne trāscenderis, neque metus ūltrā neque pudor est (Tac. A. iii. 54), *if you once overstep the bounds with impunity, there is no fear nor shame any more.*

si cōderēs placābilis (Tac. Ann.), [*he was*] *easily appeased if one yielded.*

b. In later writers (not in Cicero), the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used in protasis, with the Imperfect Indicative in apodosis, to state a *repeated or customary* action in past time: as, —

accūsātōrēs, si facultās incideret, poenis adficiēbantur (Tac. A. vi. 30), *the accusers, whenever opportunity offered, were visited with punishment.*

c. In a general condition in present time, the protasis often takes the Perfect, and the apodosis the Present Indicative. For past time, the Pluperfect is used in the protasis, and the Imperfect in the apodosis. Thus, —

si quōs aliqua membrōrum parte inūtilēs nōtāvērunt, necārī iubent (Q. C. ix. 1, 25), *if they [ever] mark any infirm in any part of their limbs, they [always] order them to be put to death.* [Present.]

si ā persequendō hostēs deterrēre nequiverant ab tergō circumveniēbant (Jug. 50), *if [ever] they were unable to prevent the enemy from pursuing, they [always] surrounded them in the rear.* [Past.]

d. In all other cases, general suppositions—including those introduced by Indefinite Relatives—are not distinguished in form from Particular Conditions.

7. Condition Disguised.

310. In many sentences properly conditional, the Protasis is not expressed by a conditional clause, but is stated in some other form of words or implied in the nature of the thought. Thus, —

a. The condition may be implied in a Clause or in a Participle, Noun, Adverb, or some other word or phrase. Thus, —

facile mē paterer — illō ipso iūdice quaerente — prō Sex. Rosciō dicere (Ros. Amer. 85), *I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius if that very judge were conducting the trial.* [Present contrary to fact: si quaereret, etc.]

nōn mihi, nisi admonitō, vēnisset in mentem (De O. ii. 180), *it would not have come into my mind unless [I had been] reminded.* [Past contrary to fact: nisi admonitus essem.]

nūlla alia gēns tantā mōle clādis nōn obruta esset (Liv. xxii. 54), *there is no other people that would not have been crushed by such a weight of disaster.* [Past contrary to fact: sī alia fuisset.]

nēmō unquam sine māgnā spē immortalitātis, sē prō patriā offerret ad mortem (Tusc. i. 32), *no one, without great hope of immortality, would ever expose himself to death for his country.* [Present contrary to fact: nisi māgnam spem habēret.]

quid hunc paucōrum annorum accēssiō iuvāre potuisset (Æcl. 11), *what good could the addition of a few years have done him (if they had been added)?* [Past contrary to fact: sī accēssissent.]

quī igitur mihi ferārū laniātus oberit nihil sentiētī (Tuscul. i. 104), *what harm will the mangling by wild beasts do me if I don't feel anything (feeling nothing)?* [Future more vivid: sī nihil sentiam.]

incitāta semel proclive lābuntur (Tusc. iv. 42), *if once given a push, they slide down rapidly.* [Present General: sī incitāta sūnt.]

b. The condition may be contained in a Wish (*optative subjunctive*), or expressed as an Exhortation or Command (*hortatory subjunctive*,¹ or *imperative*): as, —

utinam quidem fuissem! molestus nōbis nōn esset (Fam. xii. 3), *I wish I had been [chief]: he would not now be troubling us (i.e. if I had been).* [Optative Subjunctive.]

nātūrā expellās furcā, tamen usque recurret (Hor. Ep. i. 10. 24) *drive out nature with a pitchfork, still she will ever return.* [Hortatory.]

rogēs enim Aristōnem, neget (Fin. iv. 69), *for ask Aristo, he would deny.* manent ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria (Cato M. 22), *old men keep their mental powers, only let them keep their zeal and diligence* (§ 266. d). [Hortatory.]

tolle hanc opiniōnem, lūctum sustuleris (Tusc. i. 30), *remove this notion, and you will have done away with grief.* [Imperative.]

NOTE. — The so-called *concessive subjunctive* with *ut* and *nō* is really hortatory, and often has the force of protasis (§ 313. a): as, —

ut enim ratiōnem Platō nūllam afferret, ipsā auctōritāte mē frangeret (Tusc. i. 49), *even if Plato gave no reasons, [still] he would overpower me, etc.*

c. Rarely the condition takes the form of an *independent clause*. as, —

ridēs: māiōre cachinnō concutitur (Juv. iii. 100), *you laugh; he shakes with louder laughter (= if you laugh, he shakes).*

¹ This usage is probably the origin of the use of the subjunctive in Protasis; the subjunctive being used first as in § 266, while the conditional particle is a form of an indefinite pronoun (see head-note, p. 320).

commovē: sentiēs (Tusc. iv. 54), *stir him up [and] you'll find*, etc.

dē paupertate agitur: multi patientes pauperes commemorantur (Tusc. iii. 57), *we speak of poverty; many patient poor are mentioned*.

d. The condition is often contained in a Relative Clause (see § 316).

REMARK.—For the use of a participle as APODOSIS, see § 304. c.

8. Condition Omitted.

311. The Protasis is often wholly omitted, but may be inferred from the course of the argument. Thus,—

poterat Sextilius impūnē negāre: quis enim redargueret (Fin. ii. 55), *Sextilius might have denied with impunity; for who would prove him wrong (if he had)*.

REMARK.—Under this head belongs the so-called POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

I. POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

a. The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as *actually performed*, but as *possible*.

In this use the Present and the Perfect refer without distinction to the immediate *future*; the Imperfect to *past* time. The second person is common, indicating an Indefinite Subject (cf. § 309. a). Thus,—

hic quaerat quispiam (N. D. ii. 133), *here some one may ask*.

assimilāre fretō possis (Ov. M. v. 6), *you might compare*.

ut aliquis fortasse dixerit (Of. iii. 97), *as one may perhaps say*.

forsitan haec illi mirentur (Verr. iv. 124), *they may perchance marvel at these things*.

tum in lectō quōque vidērēs susurrōs (Hor. Sat. ii. 8. 77), *then on each couch you might hear whisperings*.

NOTE 1.—The Present is sometimes used for the Imperfect: as,—

migrantis cernās (Æn. iv. 401), *you might have seen them moving*.

NOTE 2.—The Pluperfect is rare in this construction. Its place is supplied by the Imperfect.

putāsēs eiūs lūctūs aliquem finem esse debēre (Sen. Dial. 6, 13), *you would have thought there ought to be some end to his grief*.

NOTE 3.—The subjunctive with *forsitan* does not differ in meaning from the Potential Subjunctive, but is really an Indirect Question (§ 334. g).

REMARK.—The potential subjunctive is *not* an apodosis with omitted protasis. Sometimes the protasis may be easily supplied, but often none is present to the mind of the speaker. So also the Subjunctive of Modesty (b, below).

II. SUBJUNCTIVE OF MODESTY.

b. The Subjunctive is used in cautious, modest, or hypothetical statements (*coniunctivus modestiae*). This use is especially common in a polite wish, with *velim* or *vellem*. Thus,—

pāce tuā dixerim (Mil. 103), *I would say by your leave.*

haud aciam an (Laelius 51), *I should incline to think.*

tū velim sic existimēs (Fam. xii. 6), *I should like you to think so.*

vix ausim credere (Ov. M. vi. 561), *I should hardly dare believe.*

vellem adesset M. Antonius (Phil. i. 16) *I could wish Antony were here.*

[Here vellem implies an unfulfilled wish in present time: volō or nōlō would express a peremptory wish.]

haec erant fere quae tibi nōta esse vellem (Fam. xii. 5), *this is about what I should like you to know.* [Here vellem is simply velim transferred

to past time on account of erat (epistolary), by sequence of tenses, and does not imply an impossible wish.]

III. VERBS OF NECESSITY.

c. The Indicative of verbs signifying *necessity, propriety*, and the like, may be used in the apodosis of implied conditions, either future or contrary to fact: as, —

longum est ea dicere, sed . . . (Ses. 12), *it would be tedious to tell, etc.*
[Future.]

illud erat aptius, aequum cuique concedere (Fin. iv. 2), *it would be more fitting to yield each one his rights.*

quantō melius fuerat (Off. iii. 94), *how much better it would have been.*

quod contra decuit ab illō meum [corpus cremārī] (Cat. Maj.), *whereas on the other hand mine ought to have been burnt by him.*

ipsum enim expectāre magnum fuit (Phil. ii. 103), *would it have been a great matter to wait for the man himself?*

nam nōs decēbat domum lugēre ubi esset aliquis in lūcem editus (Tusc. i. 115), *for it were fitting to mourn the house where a man has been born (but we do not).*

nunc est bibendum . . . nunc Saliāribus ōrnāre pulvinar deōrum tempus erat dapibus sodālīs (Hor. Od. i. 37. 1), *i.e. it would be time (if it were for us to do it, but it is a public act).*

REMARK. — Notice that, in this construction, the Imperfect indicative refers to *present time*; the Pluperfect to simply *past time*, like the perfect. Thus oportēbat means *it ought to be [now], but is not*; oportuerat means *it ought to have been, but was not*.

NOTE. — In many cases it is impossible to say whether a protasis was present to the mind of the speaker or not (see third example above).

9. Complex Conditions.

d. Either the protasis or the apodosis may be a complex idea in which the main statement is made with expressed or implied qualifications. In such cases the true logical relation of the parts is sometimes disguised: as, —

si quis hōrum dixisset . . . si verbum dē rēpublicā fēcisset . . . multa plūra dixisse quam dixisset putārētur (Rosc. Am. 2), *if any of these had spoken in case he had said a word about politics, he would be thought to have said much more than he did say.* [Here the apodosis of *dixisset* is the whole of the following statement (*si . . . putārētur*), which is itself conditioned by a protasis of its own: *si verbum*, etc.].

quod si in hōc mundō fieri sine deo non potuit nē in sphaerā quidem eōdem mōtū sine divinō ingenio potuisset imitari (Tusc. i. 63), *now if that cannot be done in this universe without divine agency, no more could [Archimedes] in his orrery have imitated the same revolutions without divine genius.* [Here *si potuit* (a protasis with nothing implied) has for its apodosis the whole clause which follows, but *potuisset* has a contrary-to-fact protasis of its own implied in *sine . . . ingenio*.]

peream male si nō optimum erat (Hor. Sat. ii. 1. 6), *confound me (may I perish wretchedly) if it wouldn't be better.* [Here *peream* is apodosis to the rest of the sentence, while the true protasis to *optimum erat*, contrary to fact, is omitted.]

10. Particles of Comparison (Conclusion Omitted).

312. The particles of Comparison — *tamquam*, *tamquam* *si*, *quasi*, *acsi*, *ut*, *ut*, *velut*, *veluti*, and poetic *ceu* (all meaning *as if*), and *quam* *si* (*than if*) — take the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, unless the sequence of tenses requires the Imperfect or Pluperfect. Thus, —

tamquam clausa *sit* Asia (Fam. xii. 9), *as if Asia were closed.*

tamquam si claudus *sim* (Plaut. Asin. ii. 4, 21), *just as if I were lame (i.e. just as it would be if I should be lame).*

ita hōs [honōres] petunt, quasi honestē vixerint (Jug. 85), *they seek them (offices) just as if they had lived honorably.*

quasi verō nō specie visa iūdicentur (Acad. ii. 58), *as if forsooth visible things were not judged by their appearance.*

similiter facis ac si mē rogēs (N. S. iii. 3), *you do exactly as if you asked me.*

aequē ac si mea negotia essent (Fam. xiii. 43), *as much as if it were my own business.*

velut si coram adesset (B. G. i. 32), *as if he were present in person.*

ceu cētera nusquam bella forent (Æn. ii. 438), *as if there were no fighting elsewhere.* [But sometimes with indic. in poetry, as Æn. v. 88.]

magis quam si domi essēs (Att. vii. 4), *more than if you were at home.*

REMARK. — The English idiom would lead us to expect the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with these particles; but the point of view is different in the two languages. Thus the second example above is translated *just as if I were lame*, — as if it were a present condition contrary to fact; but it really means *just as [it would be] if I should [at some future time] be lame*, and so is a less vivid future condition requiring the present subjunctive. Similarly *quasi honestē vixerint*, *as if they had lived honorably*, is really *as [they would do in the future] if they should have lived honorably*, and so requires the Perfect Subjunctive (§ 307. c.).

NOTE.—These subjunctive clauses are really future conditions with apodosis implied in the particle itself. Thus in *tamquam* *et* *claudun* *sim* the protasis is introduced by *si*, and the apodosis implied in *tamquam*.

11. Concessive Clauses.

313. The particles of Concession (meaning *although*, *granting that*) are the following: *quamquam*, *quamlibet*, *quamvis*, *quantum vis*, *ut*, *nē*, *cum*, *licet*, *etsi*, *tametsi*, *etiamsi*.

Some of these take the Subjunctive, others the Indicative. Thus, —

a. *Quamvis*, *ut*, and *nē* take the Subjunctive (§ 266. c): as, —

quamvis ipsi infantēs sint, tamen . . . (id. 70), *however incapable of speaking they themselves may be, yet, etc.*

ut nēminem alium rogāset (Mil. 46), *even if he had asked no other.*

nē siq̄ sanē summum dolor: malum certē est (Tusc. ii. 14), *suppose pain is not the greatest evil, still it surely is an evil.*

NOTE.—*Quamvis* means literally, *as much as you will*. Thus in the example above, *let them be as incapable as you will, still, etc.* The subjunctive with *quamvis* and *nē* is hortatory; that with *ut* is of uncertain origin.

b. *Licet* (properly a verb) takes a Substantive clause in the Subjunctive (§ 331. c): as, —

licet omnēs in mē terrōres periculaque impendeant (Rosc. Am. 31), *though all terrors and perils should menace me.*

NOTE.—The subjunctive with *licet* is by the sequence of tenses necessarily limited to the Present and Perfect tenses.

c. *Etsi*, *etiamsi*, *tametsi*, *even if*, take the same constructions as *si* (§ 305): as, —

etsi abest mātūritās (Fam. vi. 18), *though ripeness of age is wanting.*

etsi nunquam dubium fuit (id. v. 19), *although it has never been doubtful.*

etsi statueram (id. v. 5), *though I had determined.*

etsi nihil aliud abstulissētis (Sull. 90), *even if you had taken away nothing else.*

etiamsi quod scribās nōn habēbis, scribitō tamen (Fam. xvi. 26), *even if you [shall] have nothing to write, still write.*

sed ea tametsi vōs parvi pendebātis (Sall. Cat. 52), *but although you regarded those things as of small account.*

d. *Cum* concessive takes the Subjunctive (see § 326): as, —

cum mihi nōn omnino excidisset (Fam. v. 13), *though it had not entirely vanished [from my mind].*

NOTE.—In early Latin *cum* (*quom*) concessive usually takes the Indicative: *as*, —

nil quom est nil dēsit tamen (Ter. Eun. 243), *while I have nothing, still nothing is wanting.* [See also § 326, note 3.]

e. *Quamquam* introduces an *admitted fact* and takes the Indicative: *as*, —

omnibus — quamquam ruit ipse suis clādibus — pestem dēnūtiat (Phil. xiv. 8), *though he is breaking down under his disasters, still he threatens all with destruction.*

f. *Quamquam* more commonly means *and yet*, introducing a new proposition in the indicative: *as*, —

quamquam haec quidem tolerābilia vidēbantur, etsi, etc. (Mil. 76), *and yet these, in truth, seemed now bearable, though, etc.*

g. The poets and later writers frequently use *quamvis* and *quamquam* like *etsi*, connecting them with the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to the nature of the condition. Thus, —

quamquam moveretur (Liv. xxxvi. 34), *although he was moved.*

Polliō amat nostram, quamvis est rūsica, musam (Ecl. iii. 84), *Polliō loves my muse, though she is rustic.*

quamvis pervenerās (Liv. ii. 40), *though you had come.*

NOTE.—Even Cicero occasionally uses *quamquam* with the Subjunctive: *as*, —

quamquam nē id quidem suspiciōnem cōitiōnis habuerit (Planc. 53), *though not even that raised any suspicion of a coalition.*

h. The Relative pronoun *quī* is often used with the Subjunctive to express concession (see § 320. *e*).

i. Concession is often expressed by the Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle (§ 266): *as*, —

sit clarus Scipiō, ornētur eximiā laude Āfricānus, habeātur vir ēgregius Paullus . . . erit profectō inter hōrum laudēs aliquid loci nostrae glōriae (Catil. iv. 21), *let Scipio be renowned, let Africanus be honored with especial praise, let Paulus be regarded as a remarkable man, [still] there will surely be some room for my glory amid the praises of these men.*

12. Proviso.

314. *Dum, modo, dummodo, or tantum*, introducing a *PROVISO*, takes the Subjunctive: *as*, —

oderint dum metuant (Off. i. 97), *let them hate, if only they fear.*

valētūdō modo bona sit (Brut. 64), *provided the health is good.*

dummodo inter mē atque tē murus intērit (Cat. i. 10), *provided only the wall (of the city) . . .*

a. In a *negative* proviso *nō* is used, with or without *modo*, etc.: as, *modo nō sit ex pecudum genere* (Of. i. 105), *provided [in pleasure] he be not of the herd of cattle.*

id faciat saepe, dum nō lassum fiat (Cato R. R. v. 4), *let him do this often, provided he does not get tired.*

dummodo ea (severitas) nō variētur (Q. Fr. i. 1), *provided only it (strictness) be not allowed to swerve.*

tantum nō noceat (Ov. M. ix. 21), *only let it do no harm.*

NOTE.—The Subjunctive with *modo* is hortatory (§ 266. *d*), that with *dum* and *dummodo*, a development from the use of the Subjunctive with *dum* in temporal clauses, § 328 (compare the colloquial, *so long as my health is good, I don't care*).

b. The Hortatory Subjunctive without a particle sometimes expresses a proviso (see § 266. *d*): as, —

sint Maecēnātes, nō deerunt, Flacce, Marōnes (Mart. viii. 56, 5), *so there be Maecenases, Virgils will not be lacking.*

NOTE.—For a clause of Result expressing proviso, see § 319. *b*.

13. Use of *SI* and its Compounds.

315. The uses of some of the more common Conditional Particles may be stated as follows: —

a. 1. *SI* is used for *affirmative*, *nisi* (*nī*) and *si nōn* for *negative* conditions. With *nisi* (generally *unless*) the apodosis is stated as *universally* true *except* in the single case supposed, in which case it is (impliedly) *not true*. Thus, —

nisi Conōn adest maereō, unless Conon is here, I mourn (i.e. I am always in a state of grief except in the single case of Conon's presence, in which case I am not).

With *si nōn* (*if not*) the apodosis is only stated as true *in the (negative) case supposed*, but as to other cases no statement is made. Thus, —

si Conōn nōn adest maereō, if Conon is not here, I mourn (i.e. I mourn in the single case of Conon's absence, nothing being said as to other cases in which I may or may not mourn).

NOTE.—It often, however, makes no difference in which form the statement is made.

2. *NI* is an old form surviving in a few conventional phrases and reappearing in poets and later writers.

Sometimes *nisi si*, *except if, unless*, occurs: as, —

nōli putāre mē ad quemquam longiōrēs epistulās scribere, nisi si quis ad mē plūra scripsit (Fam. xiv. 2), *except in case one writes more to me.*

b. *Nisi vērō* and *nisi forte* regularly introduce an objection or exception *ironically*, and take the Indicative: as, —

nisi **verō** L. Caesar **crūdēlior** **visus** **est** (Cat. iv. 13), *unless indeed L. Caesar seemed too cruel.*

nisi **forte** **volumus** **Epicūrēorū**, **opiniōnem** **sequi** (De Fato, 37), *unless to be sure we choose to follow the notion of the Epicureans.*

NOTE. — This is the regular way of introducing a *reductio ad absurdum* in Latin. **Nisi** alone is sometimes used in this sense: as, —

nisi **ūnum** **hūc** **faciam** **ut** **in** **puteō** **cēnam** **coquant** (Plaut. Aul. 363), *unless I do this one thing, [make them] cook dinner in the well.*

c. **Sive** (**seu**) . . . **sive** (**seu**), *whether . . . or*, introduce a condition in the form of an *alternative*. They may be used with any form of condition, or with different forms in the two members. Often also they are used without a verb. Thus, —

nam **illō** **locō** **libentissimē** **soleō** **ūtī**, **sive** **quid** **mēcum** **ipse** **cōgitō**, **sive** **quid** **aut** **scribō** **aut** **legō** (De Leg. ii. 1), *for I enjoy myself most in that place, whether I am thinking by myself, or am either writing or reading.*

NOTE. — **Sive** . . . **seu** and **seu** . . . **sive** are late or poetic.

d. **Nisi** is often used loosely by the comic poets in the sense of *only*: as, —

ecce **autem** **dē** **integrō**: **nisi** **quidquid** **est** **volō** **scire** (Ter. Ad. 153), *but there it is again: only whatever it is I want to know it.*

CHAPTER V. — *Dependent Constructions.*

I. — RELATIVE CLAUSES.

The Relative, being in origin a weak demonstrative (or possibly, in some cases, an interrogative), may be used indifferently with either the indicative or the subjunctive. A simple relative, introducing a merely descriptive fact, takes the Indicative, as any demonstrative would do. Thus, *tellūs quæ fuerat rudis*. But many relative constructions take the subjunctive to indicate a closer logical connection between the relative clause and the main clause.

These constructions have grown up from the future meaning of the subjunctive, each with its own special development. In general they are of two kinds, which are not, however, very distinct in meaning: 1. clauses where the implied logical connection is that of Purpose; 2. clauses which express more or less distinctly some Characteristic of the antecedent. Of these last the most common is the ordinary clause of Result. Besides these two classes, however, there are general relatives of Protasis, in which the indefinite relatives *whenever, whenever*, etc., are regarded as conditional expressions, equivalent to, *if any one, if at any time*, etc.¹

Dependent Relative Clauses may be thus classified: —

1. Conditional Relative Clauses (§ 316).
2. Clauses of PURPOSE (*Final Clauses*) (§ 317).
3. Clauses of CHARACTERISTIC, including—
 - a. Simple Result (*Consecutive Clauses*) (§ 319).
 - b. Clauses of Characteristic (including *cause* and *hindrance*) (§§ 320, 321).
 - c. Clauses of Time (§ 322 ff.).

1. Conditional Relative Clauses.

316. A clause introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb may be treated as a conditional clause and take any of the constructions of Protasis¹ (§ 305): as,

quī enim vitīs modum appōnit, is partem suscipit vitiorū (Tusc. iv. 42),
he who [only] sets a limit to faults, takes up the side of the faults.
 [= *sī quis appōnit.*]

quicquid potuit, potuit ipsa per sē (Agr. i. 20), *whatever power she had, she had by herself.* [— *sī quid potuit.*]

quod quī faciet, non aegritudine solum vacābit, sed, etc. (Tusc. iv. 38),
and he who does [shall do] this, will be free not only, etc. [— *sī quis faciet.*]

quisquis hūc vēnerit vāpulābit (Plaut. Am. 153), *whoever comes here shall get a thrashing.* [— *sī quis vēnerit.*]

¹ As in the Greek *ὅς ὅτι, ὅταν*, etc.; and in statutes in English, where the phrases *if any person shall* and *whoever shall* are used indifferently.

philosophia, cui qui pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere (Cat. Maj. 2), *philosophy, which (if anyone should obey, he would be able to spend his whole life without vexation. [= si quis pāreat.]*

quaecumque causa vōs hūc attulisset, lactārer (De O. ii. 15), *I should be glad, whatever cause had brought you here (i.e. if any other, as well as the one which did). [= si . . . attulisset.]*

NOTE. — The relative in this construction is always Indefinite in meaning, and usually in form.

a. The special constructions of General Conditions are sometimes found in Conditional Relative Clauses: viz., —

1. The Second Person Singular of the Subjunctive in the protasis with the Indicative of a *general truth* in the apodosis (§ 309. a): as, —

bonus sēgnior fit, ubi negligās (Jug. 31), *a good man becomes less diligent when you don't watch him.*

2. In later writers the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the protasis and the Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 309. b): as, —

quōcumque sē intulisset, victōriam sēcum trahēbat (Liv. vi. 8), *wherever he advanced, he carried victory with him.*

3. The Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative in the protasis and the Present or Imperfect Indicative in the apodosis (§ 309. c): as, —

cum ad villam vōnī, hōc ipsum nihil agere mē dēlectat (De O. ii. 24), *whenever I come to the villa, this very doing nothing delights me (whenever I have come, etc.). [Present General Condition.]*

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), *whenever he saw (had seen) a rose, then he thought spring was beginning. [Past General Condition.]*

2. Clauses of Purpose.

NOTE. — The Subjunctive clause of Purpose has arisen either from the original *future* meaning of the subjunctive, or from its *hortatory* use. Either affords a satisfactory analysis. If developed from the hortatory subjunctive, the Subjunctive of Purpose has come through a kind of indirect discourse construction (for which see § 340). Thus *mihi lēgātōs qui dicerent* means either *he sent ambassadors who would say* (future use), or, *he sent ambassadors who should say, i.e. let them say* (cf. hortatory subjunctive in past tenses, § 266. c, and hortatory clauses in Indirect Discourse, § 339).

As *ut* (*utī*) is of relative origin, the construction with *ut* is the same as that of relatives. That with *nē* is, no doubt, in origin, a *hortatory* subjunctive.

317. A clause expressing purpose is called a **FINAL Clause**.

Final clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by *ut* (*ut*), negative *nō* (*ut nō*), or by a Relative pronoun or adverb.

Final clauses may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive.

1. Pure Clauses of Purpose are introduced by *ut* (*ut*) or *nō*. They express the purpose of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.

2. Relative Clauses of Purpose are introduced by the Relative pronoun *quī*, or by the Relative adverbs *ubi*, *unde*, *quō*, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.

3. Substantive Clauses of Purpose are introduced by *ut* (*ut*), negative *nō*. They differ from Pure final Clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Purpose, see § 331.)

Examples of Pure and Relative clauses of purpose are : —

ab aratrō abdūxerunt Cincinnātum, ut dictātor esset (Fin ii. 12), *they brought Cincinnatus from the plough that he might be dictator.*

nō qua diūs adventūs procul significātiō fiat (B. G. vi. 29), *that no sign of his arrival may be made at a distance.*

ut nō sit impūne (Mil. 31), *that it be not with impunity.*

scribēbat orātiōnēs quās alii dicerent (Bru. 206), *he wrote speeches for other men to deliver.*

nihil habeo quod scribam, *I have nothing to write.*

cō extinctō fore unde dicerem neminem (Cat. Maj. 12), *that when he was dead there would be nobody from whom (whence) I could learn.*

huic nē ubi cōsisteret quidem contrā tē locum reliquisti (Quinct. 73), *you have left him no ground even to make a stand against you*

habebam quō cōfugerem (Fam. iv. 6), *I had [a retreat] whither I might flee.*

NOTE. — The Relative in this construction is equivalent to *ut* with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus *quī* = *ut is* (etc.), *ubi* = *ut ibi*, and so on (cf. § 319. note).

a. Sometimes the relative or conjunction has a correlative in the main clause : as, —

legum ideoquē omnēs servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus (Clu. 146), *for this reason we are all subject to the laws, that we may be free.*

cō cōsiliō . . . ut (regularly), *with this design, that*, etc.

cā causā . . . nē, *for this reason, lest*, etc.

hōc cōsiliō ut montium tegerentur altitudīne (Nep. Mil. 5), *with this purpose, that they might be protected by the height of the mountains.*

b. The ablative **quō** (= **ut eō**) is used as a conjunction in final clauses which contain a *comparative*: as, —

libertate usus est, quō impūnius dicāx esset (Quinc. 11), *he took advantage of liberty, that he might bluster with more impunity* (by which the more easily).

NOTE 1. — So **quōminus** (= **ut eō minus**) introduces a subjunctive clause after verbs of *hindering* (see § 331. c).

NOTE 2. — Occasionally **quō** introduces final clauses which do not contain a comparative: as, —

quō sibi (exercitum) fidum faceret (Sall. Cat. 11), *in order to make the army devoted to himself.*

c. The Principal clause, on which a final clause depends, is often to be supplied from the context. Thus, —

ac nē longum sit . . . iussimus (Cat. iii. 10), *and, not to be tedious, we ordered, etc.* [Strictly, *in order not to be tedious, I say, we ordered.*]

sed ut ad Dionysium redeāmus (Tusc. v. 63), *but to return to Dionysius.*

sed ut eōdem revertar, causa haec fuit timōris (Fam. vi. 7), *but, to return to the same point, this was the cause of fear.*

satis incōsiderāti fuit, nē dicam audācis (Phil. xiii. 12), *it was the act of one rash enough, not to say daring.*

REMARK. — By a similar ellipsis the subjunctive is used with **nōdum** (sometimes **nē**), *still less, not to mention that*: as, —

nōdum . . . salvi esse possimus (Clu. 95), *much less could we be safe.*

nōdum isti . . . nōn statim cōquisitūri sint aliquid sceleris et flāgiti (Leg. Ag. ii. 35), *far more will they hunt up at once some sort of crime and scandal.*

nōdum in mari et viā sit facile (Fam. xvi. 8), *still less is it easy at sea, and on a journey.*

quippe secundae rēs sapientium animōs fatigant; nē illi corruptis mōribus victōriae temperārent (Sall. Cat. 11), *for prosperity overmasters the soul even of the wise; much less did they with their corrupt morals put any check on victory.*

NOTE. — With **nōdum** the verb itself is often omitted: as, —

aptius hūmānitāti tuae quam tōta Peloponnēsus, nōdum Patrac (Fam. vii. 28, 1), *fitter for your refinement than all Peloponnesus, to say nothing of Patra.*

REMARK. — Clauses of Purpose are sometimes rendered in English by *that*, or *in order that*, with *may* or *might*; but more frequently by the Infinitive with *to*. For negatives, see § 319. d. R.

318. The Purpose of an action is expressed in Latin in various ways; but never (except rarely in poetry) by the simple Infinitive as in English (§ 273).

The sentence, *they came to seek peace*, may be rendered —

- (1) *venerunt ut pacem peterent.* [Final clause with *ut* (§ 317).]
- (2) *venerunt qui pacem peterent.* [Final clause with Relative (§ 317).]
- (3) [*venerunt ad petendum pacem.*] (Not found with transitive verbs (§ 300, note), but cf. *ad parendum senatui.*) [Gerund with *ad* (§ 300).]
- (4) *venerunt ad petendam pacem.* [Gerundive with *ad* (§ 300).]
- (5) *venerunt pacem petendi causā (gratiā).* [Gen. of Gerund with *causā* (§ 298. c).]
- (6) *venerunt pacis petendae causā (gratiā).* [Gen. of Gerundive with *causā* (§ 298. c).]
- (7) *venerunt pacem petitūri.* [Future participle (§ 293. b): not in Cicero.]
- (8) *venerunt pacem petitum.* [Formel supine (§ 302).]

These forms are not used indifferently, but —

a. The usual way of expressing purpose is by *ut* (negatively *nē*), unless the purpose is *closely connected with some one word*, in which case a relative is more common. Thus, —

Arria gladium dedit marito ut se interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself (that he might kill himself).

Arria gladium dedit marito quod se interficeret, Arria gave her husband a sword to kill himself WITH (with which he might, etc.).

b. The Gerund and Gerundive constructions of purpose are usually limited to short expressions, where the literal translation of the phrase, though not the English idiom, is nevertheless not harsh or strange.

c. The Supine is used to express purpose only with verbs of *motion*, and in a few idiomatic expressions (§ 302).

d. The Future Participle used to express purpose, is a late construction of inferior authority (§ 293. b).

3. Clauses of Result.

NOTE. — The use of the Subjunctive to express Result comes from its use in Clauses of Characteristic. The clause of CHARACTERISTIC is a development peculiar to Latin, and has its origin in the *potential* use of the subjunctive (§ 311. a). A Protasis was, perhaps, originally implied, though this is not necessary to the analysis. The difference between the Subjunctive in such clauses and the Indicative of simple description is that the subjunctive expresses what *would happen in a supposed case*, while the indicative states what *does or did in fact take place*. The most common and obvious use of this construction is to express a quality or characteristic of an indefinite antecedent (either expressed or implied). Thus, *is [Epicurus] qui ponat summum bonum in voluptate* would mean, literally, *a man who would (in any supposable case) make the highest good consist in pleasure*. This serves to express a characteristic of the indefinite person referred to by *is*, making him one of a class; while *is qui ponit* would mean *the man (Epicurus) who in fact does, etc.* So, *nōn sum ita hebes ut ita dicam* would mean, literally, *I am not dull in the manner (degree) in which I should say that*. Since in these characteristic clauses the *quality* often appears in the form of a *supposed result*, the construction readily passes over into Pure Result, with no idea of characteristic: as, —

tantus terror omnes occupavit ut etiam ipse rex ad flumen perfugerit, so great panic seized all that the king himself fled to the river.

319. A clause that expresses Result is called a Consecutive Clause.

Consecutive Clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by *ut, so that* (negative, *ut nōn*), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb).

Consecutive Clauses may be divided into Pure, Relative, and Substantive (cf. § 317).

1. Pure Clauses of Result are introduced by *ut* or *ut nōn*. They express the result of the main verb in the form of a modifying clause.

2. Relative Clauses of Result are introduced by the Relative pronoun *quī*, or by the Relative adverbs *ubi*, *unde*, *quō*, etc. The antecedent is expressed or implied in the main clause.

3. Substantive Clauses of Result are introduced by *ut* or *ut nōn*. They differ from Pure consecutive clauses in having the construction of a substantive. (For Substantive Clauses of Result, see § 332.)

Examples of Pure and Relative Clauses of Result are, —

tanta vis probitatis est ut eam in hoste diligamus (Lael. 29), *so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy.*

nam est innocentia affectio talis animi, quae noceat nemini (Tus. iii. 16), *for innocence is such a quality of mind as to do harm to no one.*

sunt aliae causae quae plane efficiant (Top. 59), *there are other causes such as to bring to pass*

nulla est celeritas quae possit cum animi celeritate contendere (Tuscul. i. 43), *there is no swiftness which can compare, etc.*

NOTE. — The Relative in this construction is equivalent to *ut* with the corresponding demonstrative. Thus, *quī = ut is* (etc.), *ubi = ut ibi*, and so on (cf. § 317. note).

REMARK. — Clauses of Result are often introduced by such correlative words as *tam*, *tālis*, *tantus*, *ita*, etc., *adeo*, *usque eo*, which belong to the main clause.

a. A negative result is regularly expressed by *ut* or *quī* with *nōn*, *nēmō* and similar negatives (not *nō*). Thus, —

multa gravibusque vulneribus confectus ut iam se sustinere nōn posset (B. G. ii. 25), *used up with many severe wounds so that he could no longer stand.*

nēmō est tam senex qui se annum nōn putet posse vivere (Cato Major 24), *nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.*

NOTE. — When the result implies an effect intended (not a simple purpose), *ut nō* or *nō* is sometimes used as being less positive than *ut nōn*: as, —

[librum] ita corrigās nē mihi noceat (Fam. vi. 7), *correct the book so that it may not hurt me.*

b. Frequently a clause of result is used in a *restrictive* sense, and so amounts to a Proviso (cf. § 314): as, —

hōc est ita ūtile ut nē plānē illūdāmur ab accūsātoribus (Rosc. Am. 55), *this is so far useful that we are not utterly mocked by the accusers (i.e. useful only on this condition, that, etc.).*

nihil autem molestum quod nōn dēsiderēs (Cato Major 47), *but nothing is troublesome which (= provided that) you do not miss.*

c. The subjunctive with the Relative quōminus (= ut eō minus) may be used, to express a result, after words of *hindering* or *refusing* (cf. § 317. b, note 1): as, —

nec aetās impedit quōminus agri colendi stūdia teneāmus (Cat. Maj. 60), *nor does age prevent us from retaining an interest in tilling the ground.*

d. A clause of result is introduced by quīn after general negatives, where quīn is equivalent to quī (quae, quod) nōn; so also after *negative* clauses of *hindrance*, *resistance*, *doubt*, *hesitation*, and the like. Thus, —

nihil est illōrum quīn [= quod nōn] ego illi dixerim (Plaut. Bac. iii. 9), *there is nothing of this that I have not told him.*

nōn dubitō quīn, *I do not doubt that* (cf. the Eng., *I do not doubt but that*).

aegrē (vix) abstinui quīn . . ., *I hardly refrained from, etc.*

nihil impedit quīn . . ., *there is nothing to prevent, etc.*

abesse nōn potest quīn (Or. 233), *it cannot be but that.*

REMARK. — It is to be observed that the constructions of Purpose and Result in Latin are precisely alike in the *affirmative* (but see *sequence*, § 287. c), but that in the *negative* Purpose takes nē, Result ut nōn, etc. Thus, —

custōditus est nē effugeret, *he was guarded in order that he MIGHT not escape.*

custōditus est ut nōn effugeret, *he was guarded so that he DID not.*

So in Purpose clauses nē quis, nē quid, nē ullus, nē quō, nēquandō, nēcubi, etc., are almost always used; in Result clauses, ut nēmō, ut nihil, ut nullus, etc. Thus, —

ita multi sunt imbēcilli senēs ut nāllum offici mūnus exsequi possint (Cat. Major 35), *many old men are so feeble that they cannot perform their duties to society.*

quī summum bonum sic instituit ut nihil habeat cum virtūte coniunctum (Offic. i. 5), *who has so settled the highest good that it has nothing in common with virtue.*

cernere nō quis eōs neu quis contingere posset (Rn. i. 413), *that no one might see them, no one touch them.*

nē quādo liberis prōscriptōrum bona patria reddantur (Rosc. Amer. 145),
lest at some time the patrimony of the proscribed should be restored to their children.

ipse ne quō inciderem reverti Formiās (Att. viii. 3, 7), *that I might not come upon him anywhere.*

dispositis explorātōribus **nē**ubi Rōmāni cōpiās trāsdūcerent (B. G. vii. 35),
having stationed scouts here and there lest the Romans should lead their troops across anywhere

tū tantē eās epistolās concepitō **nē**quādo quid ēmānet (Att. x. 12, 3),
lest anything ever leak out.

The clause of Result is sometimes expressed in English by the Infinitive with TO or SO-AS-TO or an equivalent: **as**,—

tam longē aberam ut nōn vidērem, *I was too far away to see* (so far that I did not see; cf. § 320. c).

NOTE. — Result is never expressed by the Infinitive in Latin except by the poets in a few passages (§ 273. Rem.).

4. Clauses of Characteristic.

320. A relative clause with the Subjunctive is often used to indicate a *characteristic* of the antecedent, where there is no idea of Result (see § 319. head-note)

This construction is especially common where the antecedent is otherwise *undefined*. Thus,—

neque enim tū is es, quī nesciās (Fam. v. 12), *for you are not such a one, as not to know.*

multa dicunt quae vix intellegant (Finib. iv. 2), *they say many things which (such as) they hardly understand.*

pāci quae nihil habitūra sūt insidiarum semper est cōsulendum (Off. i. 35),
we must always aim at a peace which shall have no plots.

unde agger comportāri posset, nihil erat reliquum (B. C. ii. 15), *there was nothing left, from which an embankment could be got together.*

a. A relative clause of characteristic is used after general expressions of *existence* or *non-existence*, including questions implying a negative.

So especially with **sunt** quī, *there are* [some] *who*; **quis** est quī *who is there who?* Thus,—

sunt quī discēssum animi a corpore putent esse mortem (Tus. i. 18), *there are some who think that the departure of soul from body constitutes death.*

erant quī Helvidium miserārentur (Ann. xvi. 29), *there were some who pitied Helvidius* [Cf. est cum (§ 322. Rem.).]

quis est quī id nōn maximū offerat laudibus (Lael. 24), *who is there that does not extol it with the highest praise?*

But cf. *ille consul cui . . . fuit* (Cat. iv. 1. 2).

NOTE. — These are sometimes called Relative Clauses with an Indefinite Antecedent, but are to be carefully distinguished from the Indefinite Relative in *prolativis* (§ 316).

b. A relative clause of characteristic may follow *unus* and *solus* as, —

nūl admirārī prope res est ūna sōlaque quæ possit facere et servāre beatum (Hor. Ep. i. 6. 1), *to wonder at nothing is almost the sole and only thing that can make and keep one happy.*

solus es cuius in victoriā ceciderit nēmō nisi armātus (Deiotar. 34), *you are the only man at whose victory no one has fallen unless armed.*

c. A clause of result or characteristic with *quam ut*, *quam quī* (rarely with *quam* alone), may be used after comparatives: as, —

māiōrēs arborēs cædēbant quam quās ferre miles posset (Liv. xxviii. 5), *they cut larger trees than what a soldier could carry* (too large for a soldier to carry).

Canachi signa rigidiōra sunt quam ut imitentur ventatē (Brut. 70), *the statues of Canachus are too stiff to represent nature* (stiffer than that they should).

NOTE. — This construction corresponds to the English *too . . . to*.

d. A relative clause of characteristic is used in expressions of Restriction or Proviso (cf. § 319. b): as, —

quod sciam, so far as I know.

Catōnis orationēs, quās quidem invēnerim (Brut. 65), *the speeches of Cato, at least such as I have discovered.*

servus est nēmō, quī modo tolerābili conditiōe sit servitutis (Cat. iv. 16), *there is not a slave, at least in any tolerable condition of slavery.*

e. A relative clause expressing *cause* or *concession* takes the subjunctive (§§ 313. h, 321. b): as, —

virum simplicem qui nōs nihil cōlet (Or. 230), *oh! guileless man, who hides nothing from us!* [Causal.]

peccasse mihi videor quī a tē discesserim (Fam. xvi. 1), *I seem to myself to have done wrong because I have left you.* [Causal.]

egomet quī serō Græcās litterās attigissem tamen complurēs Athēnis diēsum commorātus (De O. i. 82), *I myself though I began Greek literature late, yet, etc. (lit. [a man] who, etc.).* [Concessive.]

NOTE 1. — In this use the relative is equivalent to *cum* *is*, etc. It is often preceded by *ut*, *utpote*, or *quippe*: as, —

nec cōsul, ut quī id ipsum quæsisset, moram certāmini fecit (Liv. xlii. 7), *nor did the consul delay the fight, since he had sought that very thing (as [being] one) who had sought, etc.)*

ea nōs, utpote quī nihil contemnere soleamus, nōn pertimescēbamus (Att. ii. 24. 4), *as being men who are accustomed to despise nothing.*

Syntax: *Dependent Constructions.* [§§ 320, 321.]

convivia cum patre nōn inibat, quippe quī nē in oppidum quidem nisi perrārō venīret (Rosc. Am. 52), *since he did not even come, etc.*

NOTE 2.—The Relative of Cause or Concession is merely a variety of the Characteristic construction. The quality expressed by the subjunctive is connected with the action of the main verb either as *cause on account of which* (SINCE) or as *hindrance in spite of which* (ALTHOUGH).

f. Dignus, indignus, aptus, idōneus, take a clause of result with a relative (or, rarely with *ut*): *as*, —

digna in quibus ēlabōrārent (Tuscul. i. 1), (things) *worth spending their toil on* (worthy on which they should, etc.).

digna rēs est ubi tū nervōs intendās tuōs (Ter. Eun. 312), *the affair is worthy of your stretching your sinews* (worthy wherein you should, etc.).

indignus erās quī facerēs iniūriam, *it was beneath you to do a wrong* (you were unworthy who should, etc.).

idōneus quī impetret (Manil. 57), *fit to obtain*.

indigni ut redimerēmur (Liv. xxii. 59), *unworthy to be ransomed*.

NOTE.—With these words the poets often use the Infinitive: *as*, —

dignum nōtārī (Hor. Sat. i. 3, 24), *worthy to be stigmatized*.

fōns rivō dare nōmen idōneus (Hor. Ep. i. 16, 12), *a source fit to give a name to a stream*.

actās mollis et apta regi (Ov.), *a time of life soft and easy to be guided*.

5. Causal Clauses.

NOTE.—Causal clauses take either the Indicative or the Subjunctive, according to their construction, the idea of Cause being contained, not in the mood itself, but in the form of the argument, or in the connecting particles.

321. The Causal Particles *quod*, *quā*, and *quoniam* take the Indicative, when the reason is given on the authority of the *writer or speaker*; the Subjunctive, when the reason is given on the authority of *another*: *as*, —

1. Indicative:—

cum tibi agam grātias quod mē vivere cōgisti (Att. iii. 3), *when I may thank you that you have forced me to live*.

quā postrēma aedificāta est (Ver. iv. 119), *because it was built last*.

quoniam de utilitāte diximus, de efficiendi ratiōe (Or. Part. 95), *since we have spoken of its advantage, let us speak of the method of effecting it*.

2. Subjunctive:—

mibi grātulābāre quod audisēs mē meam pristinam dignitātem obtinēre (Fam. iv. 14, 1), *you congratulated me because [as you said] you had heard, etc.*

noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs quod somnum capere nōn posset (Tusc. iv. 44), *Themistocles used to walk about at night because [as he said] he could not sleep.*

mea māter irāta est quia nōn redierim (Plaut. Cistell. 101), *my mother is angry because I didn't return.*

nōn quoniam hōc sit necesse (Ver. ii. 1. 24), *not that this is necessary.*

NOTE 1. — The Subjunctive in this use depends on the principle of Intermediate Clauses (§ 341. d).

NOTE 2. — Under this head what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive (§ 341. d. Rem.) as, —

ego laeta visa sum quia soror vēnisset (Plaut. Mil. 387), *I seemed (in my dream) glad because my sister had come.*

So with **quod** even a verb of *saying* may be in the Subjunctive: as, —

rediit quod sē oblitum nesciō quid diceret (Off. i. 40), *he returned because he said he had forgotten something.*

NOTE 3. — The Subjunctive with **quia** is rare. The causal particle **quandō** takes the Indicative: as, —

quandō ita vīs, dī bene vortant (Plaut. Trin. 573), *since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking.*

REMARK. — Nōn quod, nōn quia, nōn quoniam, introducing a reason expressly to deny it, take the Subjunctive. Nōn quō and nōn quā introduce a Result clause, but with nearly the same meaning (§ 341. d. Rem.). Thus, —

pugilēs ingeniscunt, nōn quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur (Tusc. ii. 56), *boxers groan not because they are in pain, but because, etc.*
nōn quia philosophia percipi nōn posset (id. i. 1), *not that philosophy cannot be acquired.*

nōn quoniam hōc sit necesse (Ver. ii. 1. 24), *not that this is necessary.*

nōn quā ēnitendum sit (De O. ii. 295), *not that pain must not be taken.*

a. Causal Clauses introduced by **quod**, etc., take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, like any other dependent clause (see § 336).

b. A Relative, when used to express *cause*, regularly takes the Subjunctive (see § 320. e).

c. Cum causal takes the Subjunctive (see § 326).

NOTE. — In early Latin cum causal takes the Indicative (§ 326. note 3).

6. Relations of Time.

NOTE. — Temporal clauses are introduced by particles which are almost all of relative origin. They are construed like other relative clauses, except where they have developed into special idiomatic constructions. (For list of Temporal Particles, see p. 124.)

322. The particles **ubi**, **ut**, **cum**, **quandō**, either alone or compounded with **-cumque**, may be used as Indefinite Relatives, and have the constructions of protasis (cf. § 316). Thus, —

cum id malum esse negās (Tusc. ii. 29), *when you* (the individual disputant) *deny it to be an evil*. [Present, nothing implied (cf. § 306).] quod profectō *cum* mē nulla vis cōgeret, facere nōn audērem (Phil. v. 51), *which I would surely not venture to do, as long as no force compelled me*. [Present, contrary to fact: cf. § 308.]

cum videās eōs . . . dolore nōn frangī (Tus. I. ii. 66), *when you see that those are not broken by pain, etc.* [General condition: cf. § 309. a.]

id ubi dixisset, hastam in finēs eōrum ēmittēbat (Liv. i. 32), *when he had said this, he used to cast the spear into their territories*. [Repeated action: see § 309. b.]

cum rosam viderat, tum incipere vēr arbitrābātur (Verr. v. 27), *whenever he had seen a rose he thought spring had begun*. [Past general condition: cf. § 309. c.]

REMARK.—The phrases *est cum*, *fuit cum*, etc., are used in general expressions like *est qui*, *sunt qui* (§ 320. a): as,—

ac fuit quidem *cum* mihi quoque initium requiescendi fore iustum arbitrārer (De Or. i. 1), *and there was a time when I thought a beginning of rest would be justifiable on my part*.

323. Temporal clauses have two uses:¹—

1. They themselves *define* (with reference to the time of the *speaker*) the time of the clause on which they depend.

2. They *describe* by its circumstances the time of the main clause, which is defined not by them, but by the main clause itself.

Thus, in: *When did the Emperor Frederick die? He died while the people were still mourning the death of his father*, the time of the main clause, *he died*, is definitely fixed by the temporal clause, *while the people, etc.*, as is seen by the fact that the temporal clause answers the question, *WHEN did he die?* But in: *The Emperor Frederick died while the people were still mourning the death of his father*, the time of the main clause is not defined by the temporal clause, but is regarded as sufficiently definite in itself (or from the context). The temporal clause is added to describe that time by the circumstances of the people's grief.

These two sorts of temporal clauses the Romans distinguished by means of the *mood*, invariably using the Indicative in the first and the Subjunctive in the second. They commonly also used the particles and the tenses in accordance with this division.

I. POSTQUAM, UBI, ETC.

324. The particles *postquam* (*posteaquam*), *ubi*, *ut* (*ut primum*, *ut semel*), *simul atque* (*simul ac*, or *simul* alone) take the Indicative (usually in the *perfect* or the *historical present*): as,

¹ The terms *Absolute* and *Relative Time* naturally applied to these two uses have been abandoned in this book because they have given rise to misapprehension and have often been used by learners as pigeon-hole expressions to conceal a want of knowledge of the subject.

militēs postquam victōriam adepti sunt, nihil reliqui victis fēcēre (Sall. Cat. 11), *when the armies had won the victory, they left nothing to the vanquished.*

posteaquam forum attigisti (Fam. xv. 16), *since you came to the forum.*

ubi omnes idem sentire intellēxit (B. G. iii. 23), *when he understood that all agreed (thought the same thing).*

Catilina ubi eos convēnisse videt secedit (Sall. Cat. 20), *when Catiline sees they have come together, he retires.*

quod (sc. agmen) ubi pērgere vident (Q. C. v. 3, 18), *and when they see that it is advancing.*

Pompēius ut equitatum suum pulsum vidit, acie excēssit (B. C. iii. 94), *when Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the army.*

simul ac persensit (Aen. iv. 90), *as soon as he perceived.*

NOTE. — These particles are appropriated to *time defined*, and take the historical tenses in accordance with the distinction set forth in § 323. When they take the descriptive tenses (see *a*, below), they do *not* denote the time by its circumstances, but still define it, referring it to a then-existing state of things (*Imperfect*) or the then-existing result of a completed action (*Pluperfect*).

a. These particles less commonly take the Imperfect or Pluperfect indicative. The Imperfect in this case denotes a state of things; the Pluperfect, an action completed in past time. Thus, —

postquam instructi utrimque stābant, ducēs in medium prōcēdunt (Liv. i. 23), *when they stood in array on both sides, the generals advance into the midst.*

P. Africānus posteaquam his cōsul et cēnsor fuerat (Div. in Cæc. 69), *when Africanus had been (i.e. had the dignity of having been) twice consul and censor.*

postquam id difficilius visum est, neque facultās perficiendī dabātur, ad Pompēium transiērunt (B. C. iii. 60), *when this seemed too hard, and no means of effecting it were given, they passed over to Pompey.*

post diem quintum quam barbari iterum male pūgnāverant (= victi sunt), lēgati ā Bocchō veniunt (Jug. 110), *the fifth day after the barbarians were beaten the second time, envoys come from Bocchus.*

haec iuventūtem, ubi familiārēs opēs dēfēcērant, ad facinora incendēbant (Sall. Cat. 13), *when their inherited resources had given out.*

ubi pericula virtūte prōpulerant (id. 6), *when they had dispelled the dangers by their valor.*

b. Rarely some of these particles seem to take the subjunctive: as, —

posteaquam mājimās aedificāset ornāsetque clāvēs (Manl. 9), *having built and equipped mighty fleets (after he had, etc.).* [But the more approved editions have *postea cum.*]

II. CUM TEMPORAL.

325. **Cum** (**quom**), TEMPORAL, meaning *when*, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative. Thus, —

cum servili bellō premeretur (Manil. 30), *when she (Italy) was under the load of the Servile War.*

cum id nūtiatū esset, māturat (B. G. i. 7), *when this had been reported, he made (makes) haste.*

cum occiditur Sex. Roscius, ibidem fuerunt servi (Rosc. A. 120), *when Roscius was slain, the slaves were on the spot.*

nempe eō [lituō] regiones direxit tum **cum** urbem condidit (Div. i. 30), *he traced with it the quarters [of the sky] at the time he founded the city.*

[For examples with the Future, see *c* below.]

NOTE. — The Present takes the Indicative, because present time is generally, from its very nature, defined in the mind; and it is only when the circumstances are described as causal or adversative (see below, § 326), that the Subjunctive is used. The Perfect takes the Indicative as the tense of narration, as with **postquam**, etc. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are, from their nature, fitter to describe than to define the time.

- a. **Cum**, temporal, sometimes takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect Indicative to indicate a definite past time: as, —

rēs **cum** haec scribēbam erat in extrēmum adducta discrimen (Fam. B. i. 6), *at the time I write (epistolary) the affair has been brought into great hazard.*

quem quidem **cum** ex urbe pellēbam, hōc prōvidēbam animō (Cat. iii. 16), *when I was trying to force him (conative imperfect) from the city, I looked forward to this.*

fulgentēs gladiōs hostium vidēbant Decii **cum** in aciem eōrum inruēbant (Tusc. ii. 59), *the Decii saw the flashing swords of the enemy when they rushed upon their line.*

tum **cum** in Asiā rēs magnās permulti amiserant (Man. 19), *at that time, when many had lost great fortunes in Asia.*

NOTE. — The distinction explained in § 323 is unknown to early Latin. In Plautus **quom** always has the Indicative unless the Subjunctive is required for some other reason.

- b. When the clauses are inverted, so that the logical temporal clause becomes the main clause, and the main clause becomes the temporal clause, the Indicative must be used with **cum**: as, —

dies nōdum decem intercēsserant, **cum** ille alter filius infāns necatur (Clu. 28), *ten days had not yet passed, when the other infant son was killed.* [Instead of, *when ten days had not yet passed*, etc.]

tanque lux apparēbat **cum** prōcēdit ad milites (Q. C. vii. 8, 3), *and day was already dawning when he appears before the soldiers.*

hōc facere noctū apparābant; cum matrēs familiae repente in publicum prōcurrerunt (B. G. vii. 26), *they were preparing to do this by night, when the women suddenly ran out into the streets.*

c. To denote future time *cum* takes the Future or Future Perfect Indicative: as, —

nōn dubitābō dare operam ut tē videam, cum id satis commodē facere poterō (Fam. xiii. 1), *I shall not hesitate to take pains to see you, when I can do it conveniently.*

longum illud tempus cum nōn erō (Att. xii. 18), *that long time when I shall be no more.*

cum vēneris, cōgnoscēs (Fam. v. 7), *when you come (shall have come), you will find out.*

III. CUM CAUSAL OR CONCESSIVE.

326. *Cum* CAUSAL OR CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive: as, —

cum solitūdō . . . insidiarum et metūs plēna sit (Fin. i. 66), *since solitude is full of treachery and fear.* [Causal.]

cum initiō nōn amplius duobus milibus habuisset (Sall. Cat. 56), *though at the start he had had not more than two thousand.* [Concessive.]

cum primi ordinēs . . . concidissent, tamen ācerrimē reliqui resistēbant (B. G. vii. 61), *though the first ranks had fallen, still the others resisted vigorously.* [Concessive.]

NOTE 1. — *Cum* in these uses is often emphasized by *ut, utpote, quippe, praesertim*: as, —

nec reprehendō: quippe cum ipse istam reprehensionem nōn fūgerim (Att. x. 3), *I find no fault: since I myself did not escape that blame.*

NOTE 2. — These causal and concessive relations are merely variations of the idea of *time*. The attendant circumstances are regarded as the *cause* of the action, or as tending to *hinder* it (cf. *quī* causal and concessive, § 320. e).

NOTE 3. — In early Latin *cum* (*quom*) causal and concessive usually takes the Indicative: as, —

quom tua rēs distrahitur, utinam videam (Plaut. Trin. 573), *since your property is torn in pieces, oh! that I may see, etc.* [See also § 313. d, note.]

REMARK. — *Cum* causal may usually be translated by *since*; *cum* concessive by *although* or *while*; either, occasionally, by *when*.

a. *Cum* in the sense of *quod, on the ground that*, frequently takes the Indicative: as, —

grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs apud Dolābellam (Fam. ix. 14), *I congratulate you that you are so strong with Dolabella.*

REMARK. — This use of the indicative appears to be a colloquial relic of the old Indicative construction with *cum* (see note 3, above).

b. **Cum . . . tum**, signifying *both . . . and*, usually takes the Indicative; but when **cum** approaches the sense of *while* or *though*, it may have the Subjunctive (§ 326). Thus,—

cum multa nōn probō, tum illud in primis (Fin. i. 18), *while there are many things I do not approve, there is this in chief*. But,—
cum rēs tōta ficta sit pueriliter, tum nē efficit quidem quod vult (Ib.), *while the whole thing is childishly got up, he does not even make his point (accomplish what he wishes)*.

IV. ANTEQUAM AND PRIUSQUAM.

327. **Antequam** and **priusquam**, *before*, have in narration the same construction as **cum** temporal (§ 325): as,—

antequam tuās lēgi litterās (Att. ii. 7), *before I read your letter*.
neque ante dimisit eum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns (Liv. xxxix. 10), *she did not let the young man go till he pledged his faith*.
antequam hominēs nefarii dē meō adventū audire potuissent, in Macedonia **perrēxi** (Planc. 98), *before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia*.

NOTE.—The idea of purpose regularly requires the subjunctive: as,—
quam prius discēssit quam ad finem sermo esset perductus, i.e. *he waited for conversation to be finished*.

a. **Antequam** and **priusquam**, when referring to future time, take the Present or Future Perfect Indicative; rarely the Present Subjunctive: as,—

priusquam dē cēteris rēbus respondeō, dē amicitia pauca dicam (Phil. ii. 3), *before I reply to the rest, I will say a little of friendship*.
nōn dēfatigābor antequam illōrum ancipitēs viās percēperō (De Or. iii. 145), *I shall not weary till I have traced out their doubtful ways*.
antequam veniat litterās mittet (Ag. ii. 53), *before he comes, he will send a letter*.

b. In a few cases the Subjunctive of protasis is found with **antequam** and **priusquam** (cf. § 309. *a*): as,—

in omnibus negotiis priusquam aggrediāre, adhibenda est praeparatio diligēns (Offic. i. 73), *in all undertakings before you proceed to action, careful preparation must be used*.

V. DUM, DŪNEC, AND QUOAD.

328. **Dum**, **dūnec**, and **quoad**, implying *purpose*, *doubt*, or *futurity*, take the Subjunctive, otherwise the Indicative.

i. Subjunctive: as,—

expectās fortasse dum dicat (Tus. ii. 17), *you are waiting perhaps for him to say (till he say)*.

irātis subtrahendi *quā* ei in quōs impetum cōnantur facere dum sē ipsi colligant (Tusc. iv. 78), *till they come to their senses* (collect themselves).

Aeneas morandō sustinuit dum genitor prōtectus abiret (Æn. x. 800), *he kept Aeneas in check till his father could get away in safety.*

et duxit longē dōnec curvāta colerent inter sē capita (id. xi. 860), *and drew it (the bow) until the curved tips touched.*

Epaminōndas exercēbatur plūrimū luctandō, ad eum finem quoad stans complecti posset atque contendere (Nep. Epam. 2), *Epaminondas trained himself in wrestling so far as to be able to grapple standing and fight* (in that way).

2. Indicative (cf. *a*, below). *as*, —

hōc fēci dum licuit, intermisi quoad nōn licuit (Phil. iii. 33), *I did this so long as it was allowed, I discontinued it so long as it was not.*

causas innecte morandi dum pelagō desaevit hiemps (Ann. iv. 51), *we weave excuses for delay until the storm upon the sea hath spent its rage.*

dōnec rediit silentium fuit (Liv. xxiii. 31), *there was silence till he returned.*

quoad potuit restitit (Cat. Major 11), *he revisited as long as he could.*

NOTE 1. — *Quamdiū* takes the Indicative only : *as*, —

sē oppidō tam diū tenuit quamdiū in prōvinciā Parthi fuērunt (Fam. xii. 19), *he kept himself within the town so long as the Parthians were in the province.*

NOTE 2. — For *dum* and *dummodo* introducing a proviso, see § 314.

a. Dum in the sense of *while* usually takes the Present Indicative to indicate a continued action in *past* time, if that time is not contrasted with any other (§ 276 *c.* and note) : *as*,

dum haec geruntur (B. G. i. 46), *while this was going on.*

NOTE. — *Dum*, *dōnec*, and *quoad* in later writers sometimes take the Subjunctive when the classical usage would require the Indicative : *as*, —

nec obstitit falsis dōnec tempore ac spatiō vānēscerent (Tac. Ann. ii. 82), *nor did he contradict the falsehoods until they died out from lapse of time.*

nihil sanē trepidābant elephantī dōnec continenti velut ponte agerentur (Liv. xxi. 28), *the elephants showed no alarm whatever so long as they went over the continuous bridge, as it were.*

REMARK. — With all temporal particles the Subjunctive is often found depending on some other principle of construction. (See Intermediate Clauses below, p. 378.)

II. — SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

329. A clause used as a noun is called a Substantive Clause.

A Substantive Clause may be used as the Subject or Object of a verb, as an Appositive or as a Predicate Nominative or Accusative.

NOTE.—Many ideas which in English take the form of an abstract noun may be rendered by a substantive clause in Latin. Thus, *he demanded an investigation*, may be *postulābat ut quæstiō habēretur*. The common English expression FOR with the infinitive corresponds to a Latin substantive clause: as, *it remains for me to speak of the piratic war*; *Reliquum est ut de bellō dicam piraticō*.

REMARK.—When a Substantive Clause is used as Subject, the verb to which the subject is called *impersonal*, and the sign of the construction in English is the so-called *expletive IT*.

Substantive Clauses are classified as follows:—

1. INFINITIVE CLAUSES: { a. Infinitive clause as Subject (§ 270).
 { b. Infinitive clause as Object (§ 330).
2. SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES: { a. Of Purpose (command, wish, fear) (§ 331).
 { b. Of Result (happen, effect, hinder) (§ 332).
 (ut, nō, quō, quin,
 quōminus).
3. INDICATIVE CLAUSE with quod: Fact, Specification, Feeling.
4. INDIRECT QUESTIONS: Subjunctive, introduced by Interrogative.

1. Infinitive Clauses.

330. A. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative may be used as the *subject* of *sum* and of many impersonal verbs (see § 270).

B. The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative is used as the *object*¹—

1. Of all verbs and expressions of *knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving* (*Indirect Discourse*) (§ 272).

mō spērō liberātum [esse] metū (Tusc. ii. 67), *I trust I have been freed from fear*.

dicīt montem ab hostib; tenērī (B. G. i. 22), *he says that the height is held by the enemy*.

negat illōs patēre portūs (Liv. xxviii. 43), *he says that no ports are open*.

¹The accusative with the infinitive is found with about 80 verbs and verbal phrases, the most common being: (1) accipiō, affirmō, animadvertō, arbitror, audiō, censeō, cogitō, cōdō, disputō, doceō, existimō, fama est, fateor, intellegō, memini, nārō, negō, putō, recorder, rumor est, sentiō, spērō, suspicor, traditur, verum est, vidēō, videtur. (2) lubēō, vetō, patior, cōdō, sinō. (3) mālō, volō, nōiō, mālō. (4) decet, iuvat, sequum est, oportet, opus est, placet, fās est, nefās est, interest.

2. Of *inbeō* and *inhibeo*, and rarely of other verbs of *commanding, requesting, admonishing*, and the like (§ 321. 2). Thus, —

vetuere [bona] reddi, vetuere finem redigi (Liv. ii. 4), *they forbade the return of the goods (that they be returned), etc.*

Labienum iugum montis adascendere iubet (B. G. i. 31), *he orders Labienus to ascend the ridge of the hill.*

3. Sometimes of verbs of *wishing* (§ 331. 1): as, —

iudicem me esse non doctorem volo (Or. 117), *I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.*

REMARK. — The Infinitive with Subject-Accusative, though not strictly a Clause is equivalent to one, and may be treated as such.

a. If the main verb is changed to the Passive, either —

1. The subject of the infinitive (like other objects of active verbs) becomes *nominative*, and the infinitive is retained (*Personal Construction*): —

mons dicitur ab hostibus teneri, *the mountain is said to be held by the enemy.*

Labienus iugum montis adscendere iubetur, *Labienus is ordered to ascend the ridge of the hill.*

2. The passive is used *impersonally*, and the clause retained as its subject (*Impersonal Construction*): —

dicitur montem ab hostibus teneri, *it is said that the mountain is held by the enemy.*

nuntiatur piratarum navēs esse in portu (Verr. v. 87), *it is told that the ships of the pirates are in port.*

b. 1. Verbs of *saying, thinking*, etc., may take in the Passive either the *Personal* or the *Impersonal* construction. But the *Personal* construction is more common and is regularly used in the tenses of *incomplete action*. Thus, —

beatē vixisse videor (Laelius 15), *I seem to have lived happily.*

Epaminondās helibus praeclārē cecinisse dicitur (Tuscul. i. 4), *Epaminondas is said to have played excellently on the lyre.*

multi idem factūri esse dicuntur (Fam. xvi. 12), *many are said to be about to do the same thing.* [Active: *dicunt multos facturos (esse).*]

primi traduntur arte quādam verba vinxisse (Or. 40), *they first are related to have joined words with a certain skill.*

putatur is esse constitutus ex marmore (Archias 22), *he is thought to have been set up in marble.*

Bibulus audiēbatur esse in Syriā (Att. 18), *it was heard that Bibulus was in Syria* (Bibulus was heard, etc.). [Direct: *Bibulus est.*]

ceterae Illyrici legiones secuturæ spectantur (Tac. Hist. ii. 74), *the rest of the legions of Illyria were expected to follow.*

videmur enim quīetari fuisse nisi essēmus lacessiti (De O. ii. 230), *it seems that we should have kept quiet if we had not been molested (we seem, etc.).* [Direct: quīevissēmus . . . nisi essēmus lacessiti.]

2. Iubeō and vetō always take the personal construction of the passive: as, —

iūssus es renūntiārī cōsul (Phil. ii. 79), *you were under orders to be declared consul.*

Nōlāni mūrōs portāsque adire vetiti sūnt (Liv. xxiii. 16), *the men of Nola were forbidden to go to visit the walls and gates.*

c. In the compound tenses of verbs of *saying*, etc., the impersonal construction is more common, and with the gerundive is regular: as, —

trādītum est etiā Homērum caecum fuisse (Tus. v. 114), *it is a tradition, too, that Homer was blind.*

ubi tyrannus est, ibi nōn vitiosam, sed dicendum est planē nullam esse rempublicam (Rep. iii. 43), *where there is a tyrant, it must be said, not that the Commonwealth is evil, but that it does not exist at all.*

d. The poets and later writers extend the personal use of the passive to verbs which are not properly *verba sentiendi*, etc.: as, —

colligor dominae placuisse (Ov. Am. ii. 6, 61), *it is gathered [from this memorial] that I pleased my mistress.*

e. The Infinitive with a subject may depend on any word implying speech or thought, though not strictly a verb of *saying*, etc. (see § 336, note 2).

f. Verbs of *promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing*, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse, contrary to the English idiom: as, —

minātur sese abire (Plaut. Asin. 604), *he threatens to go away.* [Direct: abeō, *I am going away.*]

ex quibus sperant se maximum fructum esse capturos (Lael. 79), *from which they hope to gain the utmost advantage.* [Direct: capiēmus.]

quem inimicissimum futurum esse promitto ac spondeo (Mur. 90), *who I promise and warrant will be the bitterest of enemies.* [Direct: erit.]

dolor fortitudinem se debilitaturum minatur (Tusc. v. 76), *pain threatens to wear down fortitude.* [Direct: debilitābō.]

NOTE. — These verbs, however, often take a simple Complementary Infinitive (§ 371). So regularly in early Latin (except sperō). Thus, —

pollicentur obsides dare (B. G. iv. 21), *they promise to give hostages.* [Compare the Greek aorist infinitive after similar verbs].

promisi dolum vini dare (Plaut. Cistel. 542), *I promised to give a jar of wine.*

2. Clauses of Purpose.

NOTE.—Clauses of Purpose may be used substantively¹ (1) as the Object of verbs of *admonishing*, etc. (§ 331); (2) as the Subject of these same verbs in the passive (§ 331. 4), as well as of certain impersonal verbs and verbal phrases (§ 311. 1); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc.

331. Substantive Clauses of Purpose with *ut* (negative *nē*) are used as the object of all verbs denoting an action directed toward the future.²

Such are, verbs meaning to *admonish, ask, bargain, command, decree, determine, permit, persuade, resolve, urge, and wish*. Thus, —

monet *ut* omnēs suspiciōnēs vitet (id. 20), *he warns him to avoid all suspicion.*

te rogō atque orō *ut* eum iuvēs (Fam. xiii. 66), *I beg and pray you to aid him.*

his *ut* conquirerent imperāvit (B. C. i. 28), *he ordered them to search.*

persuadet Casticō *ut* rēgnum occupāret (B. G. i. 3), *he persuades Casticus to usurp royal power.*

a. *Iubeō, order, and vetō, forbid*, take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative (§ 330. B. 2): as, —

liberos ad sē adducī iussit (B. G. ii. 5), *he ordered the children to be brought to him.*

ab opere lēgātōs discēdere vetuerat (B. G. i. 20), *he had forbidden the lieutenants to leave the work.*

NOTE 1.—Some other verbs of *commanding*, etc., occasionally take the Infinitive: as, —

haec facere imperātum est, *orders were given to do this.*

res monet cavēre (Sall. Cat. 52), *the occasion warns us to be on our guard.*

b. Verbs of *wishing* take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. The Infinitive is more common when the subject remains the same; the Subjunctive, when it changes. Thus, —

1. Subject of dependent verb same as that of main verb:

quōs nō tam ulcisci studeō quam sanāre (Cat. ii. 17), *whom I do not care so much to punish as to cure.*

2. Subject of dependent verb different from that of main verb:

cupiō *ut* impetret (Plaut. Capt. 102), *I wish he may get it.*

mālle m Cerberum metuērēs (Tus. i. 12), *I would rather you feared Cerberus.*

¹ See p. 362, foot-note 1.

² Such Verbs or verbal phrases are *id agō, ad id veniō, caveō (nē), censeō, cōgō, concōdō, cōstituō, cūrō, dēcernō, dēdicō, flagitō, hortor, imperō, instō, mandō, metuō (nē), moneō, negotium dō, operam dō, orō, persuādēō, petō, postulō, praecipio, precor, prōnūtiō, quaerō, rogō, sciscō, timeō, vereor (nē), vidēō, volō*.

NOTE. — *Volō* and *cupiō*, however, tend to take the Accusative and Infinitive rather than the Subjunctive when the subject changes. When it remains the same, the subject-accusative is rarely found. Thus, —

vim volumus extinguī (Sestius 92), *we wish violence to be put down.*
tē tuā frui virtūte cupimus (Brutus 331), *we wish you to reap the fruits of your virtue.*

iudicem mō esse, nō doctorem volō (Orat. 117), *I wish to be a judge, not a teacher.*

cupiō mō esse clementem (Cat. 1. 4), *I desire to be merciful.* [But regularly, *cupiō esse clemēs* (see § 271. a).]

c. Verbs of *permitting* take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive. *Patior* takes regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; so often *sinō*. Thus, —

permisit ut partes faceret (De O. ii. 366), *permitted him to make divisions.*
concedant ut boni viri fuerint (Laelius 18), *let them allow them to have been good men.*

nūllō sē implicārī negotiō passus est (Lig. 3), *he suffered himself to be entangled in no business.*

vinum importārī nō sinunt (B. G. iv. 45), *they do not allow wine to be imported.*

d. Verbs of *determining, decreeing, resolving, bargaining*, take either the Subjunctive or the Infinitive: as, —

constituerant ut L. Bestia quereretur (Sall. Cat. 43), *they had determined that Lucius Bestia should complain.*

proeliō supersedēre statuit (B. G. ii. 8), *he determined to refuse battle.*

dē bonis regis quae reddi cēnsuerant (Liv. ii. 5), *about the king's goods, which they had decreed should be restored.*

dēcernit ut cōsules dēlectum habeant (Sall. Cat. 34), *decrees that the consuls shall hold a levy.*

ēdictō nō quis iniussū pugnāret (Liv. v. 19), *having commanded that none should fight without orders.*

pactō ut victōrem rēs sequeretur (id. xxviii. 21), *having bargained that the property should belong to the victor.*

NOTE 1. — Different verbs of these classes with the same meaning vary in their construction. For verbs of *bargaining* with the Gerundive, see § 294. d.

NOTE 2. — Verbs of *decreeing* and *voting* often take the Infinitive of the Second Periphrastical conjugation: as, —

* *Rēgulus captivōs reddendōs [esse] nō cēnsuit* (Off. i. 39), *Regulus voted that the captives should not be returned.* [He said, in giving his formal opinion: *captivī nō reddendī sunt.*]

e. 1. Verbs of *caution* and *effort* take the Subjunctive with *ut*. But *ōdō*, *try*, commonly takes the complementary Infinitive. Thus, —

cūrā ut quam primum intellegam (Fam. xiii. 10), *let me know as soon as possible (take care that I may understand).*

dant operam ut habeant (Sall. Cat. 41), *they take pains to have (give their attention that, etc.)*.

impellere ut Caesar nōminārētur (id. 49), *to impel them to name Caesar (that Caesar should be named)*.

sī trānsire cōnarentur (B. G. i. 8), *if they should try to cross*.

NOTE 1. — Cōnor sī also occurs (as B. G. i. 8, sī mīror sī, etc., § 333, Rem.).

NOTE 2. — Ut nō occurs occasionally with verbs of caution and effort (cf § 317): as, —

cūrā et prōvidē ut nēquid ei dēsit (Att. ii. 3), *take care and see that he lacks nothing*.

2. Verbs denoting an effort to hinder take either (1) a Subjunctive clause with quōminus or nō, or (2) the Infinitive: as, —

nōn dēterret sapientem mors quōminus . . . (Tusc. i. 91), *death does not prevent the wise man from, etc.*

nē facerem impedivī (De Fat. 1), *prevented me from doing*.

obstitisti nē trānsire cōpiac possent (Verr. v. 5), *you opposed the passage of the troops (opposed lest the troops should cross)*.

prohibet accēdere (Cic. 46), *prevents him from approaching (to approach)*.

NOTE. — For verbs of *hindering* negatived (*not to hinder*), see § 332. g.

f. Verbs of *fearing* take the Subjunctive,¹ with nō affirmative and nō nōn or ut negative. Thus, —

timeō nē Verrēs fēcērit (Veri. v. 3), *I fear that Verres has done, etc.*

nē animum offenderet verēbātur (B. G. i. 19), *he feared that he should hurt the feelings, etc.*

orātor metuō nē languēscat senectūte (Cat. Major 28), *I fear the orator grows feeble from old age*.

verecor ut tibi possim concēdere (De O. i. 35), *I fear [that] I cannot grant you*.

haud sānē periculum est nē nōn mortem optandam putet (Tus. v. 118), *there is no danger that he will not think death desirable*.

NOTE. — In this use nō is commonly to be translated by *that* or *lest*, ut nō nōn by *that not*.

REMARK. — The particle ut is often omitted with some verbs of the above classes. So generally after verbs of *wishing*, *necessity*, *permission*; after dīc, fac, and frequently in Indirect Discourse after verbs of *commanding* and the like. Thus, —

volō amēs (Att. ii. 10), *I wish you to love, etc.*

mē ipsum amēs oportet (Fin. ii. 85), *you ought to love me*.

¹ With verbs of *Fearing* the subjunctive with nō is hortatory in origin: timeō nō accidat is literally *I fear, let it not happen*. The subjunctive with ut may have been either hortatory or deliberative, — *I fear, let it happen*, or *I fear; how may it happen? — I hope it will happen, but I fear it will not*.

fac diligās (Att. iii.), *do love*.

dic exeat, *tell him to go out*.

Mnesthea vocat, classem aptent socii (Æn. iv. 289), *he calls Mnestheus [and orders that] his comrades should make ready the fleet* (cf. § 339).

NOTE.—Similarly *nē* is omitted after *cave* in Prohibitions (cf. § 269. a).

g. With any verbs of the above classes the poets may use the Infinitive instead of an object clause: as, —

hortāmur fārī (Æn. ii. 74), *we urge [him] to speak*.

nē quære docērī (id. vi. 614), *seek not to be told*.

temptat praevertēre (id. i. 721), *she attempts to turn, etc.*

h. A Substantive clause of Purpose used as the object of a verb becomes the subject when that verb is put in the Passive. Thus, —

imperātum est ut iter facerent, *it was ordered that they should march*.

permissum est ut irent, *permission was given that they should go*.

mihi persuādētur ut exeam, *I am persuaded to go out* (it is persuaded to me).

i. The impersonals *licet* and *oportet* take as subject either a Substantive clause of Purpose, or an Infinitive with or without subject-accusative. Thus, —

licet mē ire, *it is allowed me to go*.

querāmur licet (Cæc. 41), *we are allowed to complain*.

sint enim oportet (Tus. i. 12), *they must exist*.

NOTE 1.—The Subjunctive with *oportet* omits *ut*, except in later writers (see § 331. f. Rem.).

NOTE 2.—*Licet* may take the Subjunctive, usually without *ut*, to denote concession (see § 313. b).

NOTE 3.—*Licet* may take (1) the Subjunctive; (2) the Simple Infinitive; (3) the Infinitive with Subject Accusative; or (4) the Dative and the Infinitive. Thus, *I may go* is *licet eam*, *licet ire*, *licet mē ire*, or *licet mihi ire*.

3. Clauses of Result.

NOTE.—Clauses of Result may be used substantively,¹ (1) as the object of *faciō*, etc. (§ 332); (2) as the subject of these same verbs in the passive, as well as of other verbs and verbal phrases (§ 332. a, d); (3) in apposition with another substantive, or as predicate nominative, etc. (see § 332. f).

¹ In all these cases the clause is not strictly subject or object. The main verb originally conveyed a meaning complete in itself, and the result clause was merely appended. This is seen by the frequent use of *ita* and the like with the main verb (*ita accidit ut*, etc.). In like manner purpose clauses are only apparently subject or object of the verb with which they are connected.

332. Substantive Clauses of Result with *ut* (negative *ut nōn*) are used as the object of Verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort.¹

Such are especially *faciō* and its compounds (*efficiō*, *cōficiō*, etc.). Thus, —

efficiam ut intellegātis (Cluent 7), *I will make you understand* (lit. effect that you, etc.). [So, *faciam ut intellegātis* (id. 9)]

commeātū. ut portārī possent efficiēbat (B. G. ii. 5), *made it possible that supplies could be brought.*

quae libertās ut laetior esset rēgis superbia tēcerat (Liv. ii. 1), *the arrogance of the last king had made this liberty more welcome.*

ēvincunt instandō ut litterae darentur (id. 4), *by insisting they gain their point, — that letters should be sent.* [Here *ēvincunt* = *efficiunt*.]

a. Substantive Clauses of Result are used as the Subject of the following: —

1. Of passive verbs denoting the accomplishment of an effort: as, — *impetrātum est ut in senātū recitārentur* (litterae) (B. C. i. 1), *they succeeded in having the letter read in the senate* (it was brought about that, etc.).

2. Of Impersonals meaning *it happens, it remains, it follows, it is necessary, it is added*,² and the like: as, —

accidit ut esset luna plēna (B. G. iv. 29), *it happened to be full moon* (it happened that it was, etc.). [Here *ut esset* is subject of *accidit*.]

reliquum est quārta virtūs ut sit ipsa frūgālitas (Tusc. D. iii. 17), *it remains that the fourth virtue is thrift.* [So also *restat*.]

sequitur ut doceam (N. D. ii. 81), *the next thing is to show* (it follows that I should show).

NOTE. — In poetry the infinitive sometimes occurs.

3. Of *est* in the sense of *it is the fact that*, etc. (mostly poetic): as, *est ut virō vir lātius ordinet arbusta* (Hor. Od. iii. 1. 9), *it is the fact that one man plants his vineyards in wider rows than another.*

b. A result clause, with or without *ut*, frequently follows *quam*, after a comparative (but see § 336. c, note 2): as, —

perpeusus est omnia potius quam indicāret (Tusc. ii. 52) *he endured all rather than betray, etc.*

¹ Verbs and phrases taking an *ut*-clause of result as subject or object are *accēdit*, *accidit*, *additur*, *altera est res*, *committō*, *consequor*, *contingit*, *efficiō*, *evenit*, *facio*, *fit*, *feri potest*, *fore*, *impetrō*, *integrum est*, *mōs est*, *mūnus est*, *necesse est*, *prope est*, *rectum est*, *relinquitur*, *reliquum est*, *restat*, *tantū est*, *tantum abest*, and a few others.

² See the impersonals in the list above.

c. A result clause, with or without *ut*, is often used elliptically, in exclamatory questions. The question may be introduced by the interrogative *ne*. Thus, —

quamquam quid loquor? *tē ut ūlla rēs frangat* (Cat. i. 22), *yet why do I speak? [the idea] that anything should bend you!*
 egone *ut tē interpellēm* (Tusc. ii. 42), *what, I interrupt you?*
 ego *tē vidēre nōluerim* (Q. Fr. i. 3), *I unwilling to see you?*

REMARK. — The Infinitive, in exclamations (§ 274), usually refers to something actually occurring; the Subjunctive, to something contemplated.

d. The phrase *tantum abest*, *it is so far* [from being the case], regularly takes two clauses of result with *ut*: one is *substantive*, the subject of *abest*; the other is *adverbial*, correlative with *tantum*. Thus, —

tantum abest ut nostra mirēmur, ut usque eō difficilēs ac mōrōsi simus, ut nōbis nōn satisfaciāt ipse Demosthenēs (Or. 104), *so far from admiring my own works, I am difficult and captious to that degree, that not Demosthenes himself satisfies me.* [Here the first *ut*-clause is the subject of *abest* (§ 332. a); the second, a result clause, after *tantum* (§ 319); and the third, after *usque eō*.]

e. The expressions *facere ut*, *committere ut* with the subjunctive, often form a periphrasis for the simple verb: as, —

invitus fēci ut Flāminium ē senātū ēicerem (Cat. Maj. 42), *it was with reluctance that I expelled Flaminius from the senate.*

NOTE. — With this may be compared *fore ut* for the future infinitive (§ 288. f).

f. Rarely, a *thought* or an *idea* is considered as a result, and is expressed by the subjunctive with *ut* instead of the accusative and infinitive (§ 336. 1). In this case a demonstrative usually precedes: as, —

praeclārum illud est, ut cōs . . . amēmus (Tusc. iii. 73), *this is a noble thing, that we should love, etc.*
verisimile nōn est ut ille antepōneret (Verres iv. 11), *it is not likely that he preferred.*

g. A Relative clause of Result with *quā* is used after verbs or other expressions of *hindering* and the like when these are negated. Thus,

facere nōn possum quā . . . (Att. xii. 27), *I cannot avoid, etc.*
nihil praetermisi quā scribam . . . (Q. F. iii. 3), *I have left nothing undone to write.*
ut nūlla rē impederer quā (Att. iv. 2), *that I might be hindered by nothing from, etc.*
nōn hūmāna ūlla neque divina obstant quā (Sall. Ep. Mith. 17), *no human or divine laws prevent, but that, etc.*

NOTE 1. — The negative may be expressed (as in the examples above) or merely implied (as in *quis impedit quin eam, who (i.e. nobody) hinders me from going?*).

REMARK. — This usage is found especially with the phrase *nōn dubitō, I do not doubt*, and similar expressions: as, —

nōn dubitābat quin ei crēderēmus (Att. vi. 2), *he did not doubt that we believed him.*

illud cave dubitēs quin ego omnia faciam (Fam. v. 20), *do not doubt that I will do all.*

quis ignorat quin (Flacc. 64), *who is ignorant that, etc.?*

neque ambigitur quin Brūtus pessimū publicē id factūrus fuerit si priūrum rēgum alicui rēgnū extorsisset (Liv. ii. 1), *nor is there any question that Brutus, if he had wrested the kingdom from any one of the former kings, would have done it with the worst results to the state.* [Direct statement: *fēcisset.*]

NOTE 2. — *Nōn dubitō*, in the sense of *I do not hesitate*, commonly takes the Infinitive, but sometimes *quin* with the subjunctive. Thus, —

nec dubitāre illum appellāre sapientem (Laelius 1), *and not to hesitate to call him a sage.*

dubitandum nōn existimāvit quin proficiscerētur (B. G. ii. 2), *he did not think he ought to hesitate to set out.*

§. Some verbs and expressions may be used either as verbs of *saying* or as verbs of *commanding, effecting*, and the like. These take as their object either a Substantive clause of Purpose or Result or an Infinitive with subject accusative, according to the sense. Thus, —

sequitur illicō esse causās immutābilēs (Fat. 28), *it follows directly that there are unalterable causes.* [Result clause, the regular construction with *sequor* when used of a logical sequence.]

laudem sapientiae statuō esse maximam (Div. v. 13), *I hold that the glory of wisdom is the greatest.*

statuunt ut decem milia hominum mittantur (B. G. vii. 21), *they resolve that 10,000 men shall be sent.* [Purpose clause, cf. § 331. d.]

rēs ipsa monēbat tempus esse (Att. x. 8), *the thing itself warned that it was time.* [Cf. *monēre ut*, *warn to do something.*]

fac mihi esse persuāsum (N. D. i. 75), *suppose that I am persuaded of that.* [Cf. *facere ut*, *accomplish that.*]

hōc volunt persuādere, nōn interire animōs (B. G. vi. 13), *they wish to convince that souls do not perish.*

huic persuādet uti ad hostēs trānseat (B. G. iii. 18), *persuades him to pass over to the enemy.*

NOTE. — The infinitive with subject accusative in this construction is Indirect Discourse, and is to be distinguished from the simple infinitive sometimes found with these verbs instead of a subjunctive clause.

4. Indicative with Quod.

333. A peculiar form of Substantive Clause consists of *quod*, causal with the Indicative.

The clause in the Indicative with *quod* is used when the statement is *regarded as a fact*: as, —

alterum est vitium, quod quidam nimis magnum studium conferunt (Off. i. 19), *it is another fault that some bestow too much zeal*, etc. [Here *ut conferant* could be used, meaning *that some should bestow*; or the accusative and infinitive, meaning *to bestow* (abstractly); *quod* makes it a fact that men *do* bestow, etc.]

inter inanimatum et animal hoc maximum interest, quod animal agit aliquid (Ac. ii. 37), *this is the chief difference*, etc., *that an animal aims at something*.

quod rediit nobis mirabile videtur (Of. iii. 111), *that he (Regulus) returned seems wonderful to us*.

vetus illud Catonis admodum scitum est, qui mirari se dicebat quod non rideret haruspex haruspice cum vidisset (Div. ii. 51), *'tis an old and shrewd saying of Cato, that he wondered a soothsayer did not laugh when he looked another in the face*. [Here *rideret* is in the subjunctive as being a subordinate clause of indirect discourse: see § 336.]

NOTE. — Like other substantive clauses, the clause with *quod* may be used as subject, as object, as appositive, etc., but it is commonly either the subject or in apposition with the subject.

a. In colloquial language, the clause with *quod* sometimes appears as an *accusative of specification*, corresponding to the English WHEREAS (cf. § 326. a): as, —

quod de domo scribis (Fam. xiv. 2), *as to what you write of the house*.

quod mihi de nostro statu gratularis, minime miramur te tuis praeclaris operibus laetari (Att. i. 5), *as to your congratulating me on our condition, no wonder you are pleased with your own noble works*.

b. Verbs of *feeling* and the expression of feeling take either *quod*, *quia* (Causal), or the accusative and infinitive (Indirect Discourse) as. —

quod scribis . . . gaudeo (Q. F. iii. 1), *I am glad that you write*.

facio libenter quod eam non possum praeterire (Leg. i. 63), *I am glad that I cannot pass it by*.

quae perfecta esse vehementer laetor (Rosc. A. 136), *I greatly rejoice that this is finished*.

REMARK. — *Miror* and similar expressions are sometimes followed by a clause with *et*.¹ This is apparently substantive, but really protasis (cf. § 331. c. 1. note 1). Thus, —

¹ Cf. the Greek *καὶ ἐπεὶ* *et*.

miror si quemquam amicum habere potuit (Lael. 54), *I wonder if he could ever have a friend.* [Originally, *If this is so, I wonder at it.*]

5. Indirect Questions.

NOTE.—An Indirect Question is any sentence or clause which is introduced by an Interrogative word (pronoun, adverb, etc.), and which is itself the subject or object of a verb, or depends on any expression implying uncertainty or doubt. In grammatical form, *exclamatory* sentences are not distinguished from *interrogative* (see the third example below).

334. An Indirect Question takes its verb in the Subjunctive: as,—

quid ipse sentiam expōnam (Div. i. 10), *I will explain what I think*
[Direct: *quid sentiō?*]

id possetne fieri cōsultuit (id. 32), *he consulted whether it could be done.*
[Direct: *potestne?*]

quam sis audax omnes intelligere potuerunt (Rosc. Am. 87), *all could understand how bold you are.* [Direct: *quam es audax!*]

doieam necne doieam nihil interest (Tusc. ii. 29), *it is of no account whether I suffer or not.* [Double question.]

rogat mē quid sentiam, *he asks me what I think.* [Cf. *rogat mē sententiam*, *he asks me my opinion.*]

hōc dubium est, uter nostrū sit verēcundior (Academ. ii. 126), *this is doubtful, which of us two is the more modest.*

incerti quātenus Volo exerceret victōriam (Liv. ii. 55), *uncertain how far Volo would push victory.* [As if, *dubitantes quātenus*, etc.]

NOTE.—An Indirect Question may be the subject of a verb (as in the fourth example), the direct object (as in the first), the secondary object (as in the fifth), an appositive (as in the sixth).

The use of tenses in Indirect Question is illustrated by the following examples:—

dicō quid faciam, *I tell you what I am doing.*

dicō quid facturus sim, *I tell you what I will do.*

dicō quid fecerim, *I tell you what I did (have done, was doing, had done).*

dixi quid facerem, *I told you what I was doing.*

dixi quid fecissem, *I told you what I had done.*

dixi quid facturus essem, *I told you what I would do (was going to do).*

dixi quid facturus fuero, *I told you what I would have done.*

a. Indirect Questions referring to future time take the subjunctive of the First Periphrastic conjugation: as,—

prospiciō qui concursus futuri sint (Div. in Cæc.), *I foresee what throngs there will be* [Direct: *qui erunt?*]

quid sit futurum crās, fuge quaerere (Hor. Od. i. 9), *forbear to ask what will be on the morrow.* [Direct: *quid erit or futurum est?*]

NOTE. — This periphrastic future avoids the ambiguity which would be caused by using the present subjunctive to refer to future time in such clauses.

b. The Deliberative Subjunctive (see § 268 and examples) remains unchanged in an Indirect Question, except sometimes in tense: as, —

[quaeritur] utrum Carthāgō diruātur, ar Carthāginiēnsibus reddātur (De Inv. i. 17), [the question is] *shall Carthage be destroyed, or restored to the Carthaginians.*

nec quisquam satis certum habet, quid aut spēret aut timeat (Liv. xxii. 7), *nor is any one well assured what he shall hope or fear.* [Here the future participle with *sit* could not be used.]

incertō quid peterent aut vitārent (Liv. xxviii. 36), *since it was doubtful (a v. abs.) what they should seek or shun.*

c. In colloquial usage and in poetry the subject of an Indirect Question is often attracted into the main clause as object (*accusative of anticipation*): as, —

nōsti Mārcellum quam tardus sit (Fam. viii. 10), *you know how slow Marcellus is.* [For nōsti quam tardus sit Mārcellus. Cf. *I know thee who thou art.*]

Cf. potestne igitur eārum rērum quārē futūrae sint ūlla esse praesēnsiō (Div. ii. 15), *can there be, then, any foreknowledge as to those things, why they will occur?* [A similar use of the objective genitive.]

REMARK. — In some cases the *Object of anticipation* becomes Subject by a change of voice, and an apparent mixture of relative and interrogative construction is the result: as, —

quidam saepe in parvā pecūniā perspiciuntur quam sint leves (Lael. 63), *it is often seen, in a trifling matter of money, how unprincipled some people are* (some people are often seen through, how unprincipled they are).

quemadmodum Pompēium oppugnārent ā mē indicāti sunt (Leg. Ag. i. 5), *it has been shown by me in what way they attacked Pompey* (they have been shown by me, how they attacked).

d. Indirect Questions often take the Indicative in early Latin and in poetry: as, —

nōn reputat quid labōris est (Plaut. Am. 172), *he does not consider what a task it is.*

vineam quō in agrō cōseri oportet sic observātō (Cato R. R. 6), *in what soil a vineyard should be set you must observe thus.*

e. A few interrogative expressions are used parenthetically in an indefinite sense and do not take a subjunctive. Such are —

nesciō quis (and kindred forms), *I know not who, somebody or other, etc*

mirum (nimium) quam, *marvellously* (marvellous how).

mirum quantum, *tremendously* (marvellous how much).

immāne quantum, *monstrously* (monstrous how much).

sānē quam, *immensely.*

valdē quam, *enormously.*

Examples are : —

qui istam nesciō quam indolentiam māgnopere laudant (Tus. iii. 12), *who greatly extol that freedom from pain, whatever that is.*

mirum quantum profuit (Liv. ii. 1), *it helped prodigiously.*

ita fato nesciō quō contigisse arbitror (Fam. xv. 13), *I think it happened so by some fatality or other.*

nam suōs valdē quam paucōs habet (Fam. xi. 13), *for he has uncommonly few of his own.*

sānē quam sum gāvisus (id.), *I was immensely glad.*

vinō et lucernis Medus acinacēs immōne quaxum discrepat (Hor. Od. i. 27. 5), *is monstrously at variance.*

f. An indirect question is occasionally introduced by *si* in the sense of *whether* (like *if* in English, cf. § 333. *b.* Rem.): as, —

circumfunduntur hostēs *si* quem aditum reperire possent (B. G. vi. 37), *the enemy pour round [to see] if they can find entrance.*

visam *si* domi est (Ter. Heaut. 118), *I will go see if he is at home.*

NOTE. — This is strictly a Protasis, but usually no Apodosis is thought of, and the clause is virtually an Indirect Question.

g. *Forisit, forsitan, forsan, fortasse, fortasse an, perhaps*, are often followed by the Subjunctive: as, —

forsitan quaerātis quī iste terror sit (Rosc. Am. 2), *you may perhaps inquire what this alarm is.*

NOTE. — The Subjunctive Clause in this case was originally an Indirect Question. Thus, *it would be a chance whether*, etc. *Fortasse* is also followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative in Plautus.

III.—INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

NOTE. — The use of the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (*oratio obliqua*) is a comparatively late form of speech, developed in the Latin and Greek only, and perhaps separately in each of them. It is wholly wanting in Sanskrit and Zend, but some forms like it have grown up in English and German.

The essential character of Indirect Discourse is, that the language of some other person than the writer or speaker is compressed into a kind of Substantive Clause, the verb of the main clause becoming Infinitive, while modifying clauses, as well as all hortatory forms of speech, take the Subjunctive. The *person* of the verb is necessarily conformed to the new relation of persons.

The construction of the Indirect Discourse, however, is not limited to reports of the language of some person other than the speaker; it may be used to express what any one — whether the speaker or some one else — *says, thinks, or perceives*, whenever that which is *said, thought, or perceived* is capable of being expressed in the form of a complete sentence. For anything that can be *said, etc.*, can also be reported indirectly as well as directly.

The use of the Infinitive in the main clause undoubtedly comes from its use as a *case-form* to complete or modify the action expressed by the verb of *saying*, etc., and its object together. This object in time came to be regarded as, and in fact

to all intents became, the subject of the infinitive. A transition state is found in Sanskrit, which, though it has no indirect discourse proper, yet allows an indirect predication after verbs of saying and the like, by means of a predicative apposition, in such expressions as, "The maids told the king [that] his daughter [was] bereft of her senses."

The simple form of indirect statement with the accusative and infinitive was afterwards amplified by introducing dependent or modifying clauses; and in Latin it became a common construction, and could be used to report whole speeches, etc., which in other languages would have the direct form. (Compare the style of reporting speeches in English, where only the person and tense are changed, as is also occasionally the case in Sanskrit.)

The use of the Subjunctive in dependent clauses in Indirect Discourse probably came from regarding the statements contained in them as not *absolutely* true, but as *conditioned* upon the trustworthiness of the original speaker; that is, as Apodosis with an implied Protasis (*if we may believe the speaker*, or the like). So the French conditional is often equivalent to "it is said": as, *ainsi il aurait à peu près doublé*, "it is said to have nearly doubled," lit. "would have doubled," i.e. if we should believe the report. Cf. in German, *Er soll krank sein*, "he is said to be sick," lit. "he ought to be sick, unless the story is false." *

The Subjunctive standing for hortatory forms of speech in Indirect Discourse is simply the usual hortatory subjunctive, with only a change of person *and* tense (if necessary), as in the reporter's style, and in Sanskrit.

335. A Direct Quotation gives the exact words of the original speaker or writer.

An Indirect Quotation adapts the words of the speaker or writer to the construction of the sentence in which they are quoted.

REMARK.—The term INDIRECT DISCOURSE (*ōrātiō obliqua*) is used in two senses. In the wider sense it includes all clauses—of whatever kind—which express the words or thought of any person *indirectly*; that is, in a form different from that in which the person said the words or conceived the thought. In the narrower sense the term Indirect Discourse is restricted to those cases in which some *complete proposition* is cited in the form of an Indirect Quotation, which may be extended to a narrative or an address of any length, as in the speeches reported by Cæsar and Livy. In this book the term is used in the restricted sense.

I. FORMAL INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

336. 1. Verbs and other expressions of *knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving*,¹ govern the Indirect Discourse.

¹ Such are: (1) *knowing*, sciō, cōgnōscō, compertum habēō, etc.; (2) *thinking*, putō, existimō, arbitror, etc.; (3) *telling*, dico, nuntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmittō, certiorē facio, etc.; (4) *perceiving*, sentiō, compertō, vidēō, audiō, etc. So in general any word that denotes thought or mental and visual perception or their expression may govern the Indirect Discourse.

2. In the Indirect Discourse the *main clause* of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All *Subordinate* clauses take the Subjunctive. Thus, —

spērō mē liberātum [esse] dē metū (Tusc. ii. 67). *I trust I have been freed from fear.*

[*dicit*] *esse nōnnullōs quōrum auctōritās plūrimū valeat* (B. G. i. 17). *he says there are some, whose influence most prevails.* [In direct discourse: *sunt nōnnullī . . . valet.*]

nisi iūrāset, scelus sē factūrum [esse] arbitrabātur (Ven. ii. 123). *he thought he should incur guilt, unless he should take the oath.* [Direct: *nisi iūrāverō, faciam.*]

Stoici negant quidquam [esse] bonum, nisi quod honestum sit (Fin. ii. 68). *the Stoics assert that nothing is good but what is right.* [The verb *negō* is used in preference to *dicō* with a negative.]

NOTE 1. — In the statement of all speech or thought, the Romans tended to use the Indirect Discourse, etc., with verbs of the classes mentioned, but: *inquam*, *said I* (etc.), is appropriated to the Direct Discourse except in poetry.

NOTE 2. — The verb of *saying*, etc., is often not expressed, but implied in some word or in the general drift of the sentence; as, —

cōsulis alterius nōmen invisum civitātī fuit: nimium Tarquiniōs rēgnō aduēsse; initium ā Prisco factum; rēgnasse dein Ser. Tullium, etc. (Liv. ii. 2), *the name of the other consul was hateful to the state; the Tarquins (they thought) had become too much accustomed to royal power*, etc. [Here *invisum* implies a thought, and this thought is added in the Indirect Discourse.]

ōrantēs ut urbibus saltem — iam enim agrōs dēplōrātōs esse — opem senātus ferret (Liv. xvi. 6), *praying that the senate would at least bring aid to the cities — for the fields [they said] were already given up as lost.*

NOTE 3. — Verbs of *promising, hoping, expecting, threatening, swearing*, and the like, regularly take the construction of Indirect Discourse (see § 330 *f*, and note).

1. Subject Accusative.

a. 1. The Subject of the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse must regularly be expressed, even if it is wanting in the direct: as, —

ōrātor sum, I am an orator; dicit sē esse ōrātōrem, he says he is an orator.

NOTE. — But the subject is often omitted, if easily understood: as, —

ignōscere imprudentiæ dixit (B. G. iv. 27), *he said he pardoned their rashness.*

rogāvī pervenissentne Agrigentum: dixit pervenisse (Verr. iv. 27). *I asked whether they (the curtains) had come to Agrigentum; he answered that they had.*

REMARK. — After a relative, or *quam* (*than*), if the verb would be the same as that of the main clause, it is usually omitted, and its subject is attracted into the accusative: *as*, —

tē suspicor eisdem rebus quibus mēipsum commovēri (Cat. Maj. 1), *I suspect that you are disturbed by the same things as I.*

2. When the verb of *saying*, etc., becomes *passive*, the construction may be either Personal or Impersonal.

NOTE 1. — For rules in regard to the choice between these constructions, and for examples, see § 330. *a-d*.

NOTE 2. — An Indirect Narrative begun in the personal construction may be continued with the Infinitive and Accusative.

2. Subordinate Clauses.

b. A subordinate clause *merely explanatory* or containing statements which are regarded as true independently of the quotation, takes the Indicative: *as*, —

quis neget haec omnia quae videmus deōrum potestāte administrārī (Cat. iii. 21), *who can deny that all these things we see are ruled by the power of the gods?*

cūius ingeniō putābat ea quae gesserat posse celebrārī (Arch. 20), *by whose genius he thought that those deeds which he had done could be celebrated.* [Here the fact expressed by *quae gesserat*, though not explanatory, is felt to be true without regard to the quotation: *quae gessisset* would mean, what Marius *claimed* to have done.]

NOTE. — It often depends merely upon the feeling of the writer whether he shall use the Indicative or Subjunctive in such clauses (cf. §§ 340-342).

c. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction are not properly subordinate, and hence take the Accusative and Infinitive in Indirect Discourse (see § 180. *f*): *as*, —

Mārcellus requisivisse dicitur Archimēdem illum, quem cum audisset interfectum permolestē tulisse (Ver. iv. 131), *Marcellus is said to have sought for Archimedes, and when he heard that he was slain, to have been greatly distressed.*

unumquemque nostrū cēsent philosophi mundi esse partem, ex quō [= et ex eō] illud nātūrā cōnsequi (Fin. iii. 64), *the philosophers say that each one of us is a part of the universe, from which this naturally follows.*

NOTE 1. — Really subordinate clauses occasionally take this construction: *as*, —

quemadmodum si nōn dedātur obses prō ruptō sē foedus habitūrum, sic deditam involātā ad suōs remissūrum (Liv. ii. 13), [he says] *as in case the hostage is not given up he shall consider the treaty as broken, so if given up he will return her unharmed to her friends.*

Thus in the sentence, *dixit sē Rōmam itūrum ut cōnsulem vidēret*, he said he should go to Rome in order that he might see the consul, *vidēret* follows the sequence of *dixit* without regard to the Future Infinitive, *itūrum* [esse], on which it directly depends.

* NOTE 1. — This rule applies not only to the subjunctive in subordinate clauses in indirect discourse, but also to that which stands for the imperative, etc. (see examples in § 339), and to that in questions (§ 338).

NOTE 2. — A subjunctive depending on a Perfect Infinitive is commonly in the Imperfect or Pluperfect, even if the verb of *saying*, etc., is in a primary tense (cf. § 287 i). Thus, —

Tarquinium dixisse ferunt tum exultantem sē intellēxisse quōs fidōs amicōs habuisset (Lacl. 53), *they tell us that Tarquin said that then in his exile he had found out what faithful friends he had had.* [Here the main verb of saying, *ferunt*, is *primary*, but the time is carried back by *dixisse* and *intellēxisse*, and the sequence then becomes secondary.]

tantum prōfēcisse vidēmur ut ā Graecis nē verbōrum quidem cōpiā vince-rēmus (Nat. D. i. 8), *we seem to have advanced so far that even in fulness of words we ARE not surpassed by the Greeks.*

a. The Present and Perfect Subjunctive are often used in dependent clauses of the Indirect Discourse even when the verb of *saying*, etc., is in a secondary tense: as, —

dicēbant . . . totidem Nervios (pollicēri) qui longissimē absint (B. G. ii. 4), *they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many.*

NOTE 1. — This construction comes from the tendency of language to refer all time in narration to the time of the speaker (*Repraesentātiō*). In the course of a long passage in the Indirect Discourse the tenses of the subjunctive often vary, sometimes following the sequence, and sometimes affected by *Repraesentātiō*. Examples may be seen in B. G. i. 13, vii. 20, etc.

NOTE 2. — Certain constructions are never affected by *Repraesentātiō*. Such are the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive with *cum* temporal, *antequam*, and *priusquam*.

5. Conditions in Indirect Discourse.

337. Conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are expressed as follows: —

1. The Protasis, being a *subordinate clause*, is always in the Subjunctive.

2. The Apodosis, if independent and not hortatory or optative, is always in some form of the Infinitive.

a. The Present Subjunctive in the apodosis of less vivid future conditions (§ 307. b) becomes the Future Infinitive. Thus there is no distinction between more or less vivid future conditions in the Indirect Discourse.

Examples of conditional sentences in Indirect Discourse are: —

1. Simple Present Condition (§ 306).

(dixit) si ipse populū Rōmānō nōn præscriberet quemadmodum suō iūre uteretur, nōn oportere sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impediri (B. G. I. 36), *he said that if he did not dictate to the Roman people how they should use their rights, he ought not to be interfered with by the Roman people in the exercise of his rights.* [Direct: si nōn præscribō . . . nōn oportet.]

praedicāvit . . . si pace uti velint, iniquum esse, etc. (B. G. I. 44), *he asserted that if they wished to enjoy peace, it was unfair, etc.* [Direct: si volunt . . . est. Present tense kept by *Repraesentātiō* (§ 336. B a, note 1).]

2. Simple Past Condition (§ 306).

nōn dicam nē illud quidem, si māximē in u'pā fuerit Apollōnius, tamen in hominem honestissimae civitātis honestissimum tam graviter animadverti causā indictā nōn oportuisse (Verres v. 20), *I will not say this either, that, even if Apollonius was greatly in fault, still an honorable man ought not to have been punished so severely, etc.* [Direct: si fuit . . . nōn oportuit.]

3. Future Conditions (§ 307).

Aeduis sē obsidēs redditūrum nōn esse, neque eis . . . bellum illātūrum, si in eō manerent, quod convēnisset, stipendiumque quotannis penderent: si id nōn fecissent, longē eis frāternum nōmen populi Rōmāni abfutūrum (B. G. I. 36), *he said that he would not give up the hostages to the Aedui, but would not make war upon them if they observed the agreement, etc., and paid tribute yearly; but if they should not do this, the name of brothers to the Roman people would be far from aiding them.* [Direct: reddam . . . inferam . . . si manebunt . . . pendent: si nōn fecerint . . . aberit.]

(dixit) quod si praeter eā nēmō sequatur, tamen sē cum solā decimā legiōne itūrum (B. G. I. 40), *but if nobody else should follow, still he would go with the tenth legion alone.* [Direct: si sequetur . . . ibō. Present tense by *Repraesentātiō*.]

id Datamēs ut audivit, sēnsit, si in turbam exisset ab homine tam necessariū sē relictum, futūrum [esse] ut ceteri cōsiliū sequantur (Nep. Dat. 6), *if it should get abroad that he had been abandoned by a man so closely connected with him, everybody else would follow his example.* [Direct: si exierit . . . sequentur.]

(dixerunt) nisi mē civitatē expulsiessent, obtinere sē nōn posse licentiam cupiditātum suarum (Att. x. 4), *they said that unless they drove me out of the state, they could not have free play for their desires.* [Direct: nisi (Cicerōnem) expulerimus, obtinere nōn poterimus.]

δ. In changing a Condition *contrary to fact* (§ 308) into the Indirect Discourse, the following points require notice.

1. The Protasis always remains *unchanged in tense*.
 2. The Apodosis, if *active*, takes a peculiar infinitive form, made by combining the Participle in *-ūrus* with *fuisse*.
 3. If the verb of the Apodosis is *passive* or has no supine stem, the periphrasis *futūrum fuisse ut* (with the Imperfect Subjunctive) must be used.
 4. An Indicative in the Apodosis becomes Perfect Infinitive.
- Examples are:—

nec sē superstitem filiae futūrum fuisse, nisi spem ulciscendae mortis eius in auxiliō commilitōnum habuisset (Liv. iii. 50), *and that he should not now be a survivor, etc., unless he had had hope, etc.* [Direct: nōn superstes essem, nisi habuissem.]

illud Asia cōgitet, nūllam a sē neque belli externi neque discordiarū domesticarū calamitatem abfuturam fuisse, si hōc imperiō nōn tenēretur (Q. Fr. i. 1, 34), *let Asia (personified) think of this, that no disaster etc., would not be hers, if she were not held by this government.* [Direct: abessem, si nōn tenērer.]

quid inimicitiarū creditis exceptūrum fuisse, si insonēs lacessissem (Q. C. vi. 10, 18), *what enmities do you think I should have incurred if I had wantonly assailed the innocent.* [excēpissem . . . si lacessissem.]

invitum sē dicere, nec dictūrum fuisse, nī cārītās rei pūblicae vinceret (Liv. ii. 2), *that he spoke unwillingly and should not have spoken (at all), did not love for the commonwealth prevail?* [Direct: nec dixissem . . . nī vinceret.]

quōrum si aetās potuisset esse longinquior, futūrum fuisse ut omnibus perfectis artibus hominū vita ērudirētur (Tuscul. iii. 69), *if life could have been longer, human existence would have been embellished by every art in its perfection.* [Direct: ērudita esset.]

si Cn. Pompēius privatus esset, tamen erat dēligendus (Manil. 50), *if P. were a private citizen, still he ought to be chosen, would become dēligendum fuisse.*

NOTE 1.—In Indirect Discourse Present Conditions contrary to fact are not distinguished in the *apodosis* from Past, but the *protasis* may keep them distinct.

NOTE 2.—The periphrasis *futūrum fuisse ut* is sometimes used from choice when there is no necessity for resorting to it.

NOTE 3.—Very rarely the Future Infinitive is used in the Indirect Discourse to express the Apodosis of a Present Condition contrary to fact. Only four or five examples of this use occur in classic authors: as,—

Titurius clāmābat si Caesar adesset neque Carnūcēs, etc., neque Eburōnēs tantā cum contemptiōne nostra ad castra ventūrōs esse (B. G. v. 29), *Titurius cried out that if Caesar were present, neither would the Carnutes, etc., nor would the Eburones be coming to our camp with such contempt.* [Direct: si adesset . . . venirent.]

6. Questions in Indirect Discourse.

338. A Question in the Indirect Discourse may be either in the Subjunctive or in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

A *real question*, asking for an answer, is generally put in the Subjunctive; a *rhetorical question*, asked for effect and implying its own answer, in the Infinitive. Thus, —

quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possēssionēs veniret (E. G. i. 44), *what did he want? why did he come into his territories?* [Real question.]

Direct: quid vīs? cur venīs?]

num recentium iniuriarum memoriam [sc] dēponere posset (id. i. 14), *could he lay aside the memory of recent wrongs?* [Rhetorical Question. Direct: num possum?]

quem signum datūrum fugientibus? quem ausūrum Alexandrō succedere (Q. C. iii. 5), *who will give the signal on the retreat? who will dare succeed Alexander?* [Rhetorical. Direct: quis dabit . . . audēbit.]

NOTE 1. — No sharp line can be drawn between the Subjunctive and the Infinitive in questions in the Indirect Discourse. Whether the question is to be regarded as *rhetorical* or *real* often depends merely on the writer's point of view. Thus, —

utrum partem regni petītūrum esse, an tōtum ēreptūrum (Liv. xlv. 19), *will you ask part of the regal power (he said), or seize the whole?*

quid tandem prætōri faciendū fuisse (id. xxxi. 48), *what, pray, ought a prætor to have done?*

quid repente factum [esse] cūr, etc. (id. xxxiv. 54), *what had suddenly happened, that, etc.?*

NOTE 2. — Questions coming immediately after a verb of *asking* are treated as Indirect Questions and take the Subjunctive (see § 334). This is true even when the verb of asking serves also to introduce a passage in the Indirect Discourse. The question may be either *real* or *rhetorical*. See *quæsiuit*, etc. (Liv. xxxvii. 15).

NOTE 3. — For the use of tenses, see § 336. B, note 1.

a. A Deliberative Subjunctive in the Direct Discourse is always retained in the Indirect: as, —

cūr aliquis ex suis amitteret (B. C. i. 72), *why (thought he) should he lose some of his men?* [Direct: cūr amittam?]

7. Commands in Indirect Discourse.

339. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse: as, —

reminiscerētur veteris incommodi (B. G. i. 13), *remember (said he) the ancient disaster.* [Direct: reminiscere.]

finem faciat (id. 20), *let him make an end.* [Direct: fac.]

ferrent opem, adiuvarent (Liv. ii. 6), *let them bring aid, let them help.*

REMARK.—This rule applies not only to the Imperative of the direct discourse, but to the hortatory and the optative subjunctive as well.

NOTE 1.—Though these subjunctives stand for independent clauses of the direct discourse, they follow the rule for the sequence of tenses, being in fact dependent on the verb of *saying*, etc. (cf. §§ 286, 336. B, note 1).

NOTE 2.—A Prohibition in the Indirect Discourse is regularly expressed by **nē** with the Subjunctive, even when **nōlī** with the Infinitive would be used in the Direct: as,—

nē perturbarentur (B. G. vii. 29), *do not* (he said) *be troubled.* [Direct: **nōlīte** perturbārī. But sometimes **nōllet** is found in Ind. Disc.]

The following example illustrates some of the foregoing principles in a connected address:—

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Si pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis faceret, in eam partem itūrōs atque ibi futūrōs Helvētiōs, ubi eōs Caesar cōstituiisset atque esse voluisset: sin bellō persequi perseverāret, reminisceretur et veteris incommodi populi Rōmāni, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum. Quod imprōvisō ūnum pāgum adortus esset, cum ei qui flūmīnē trānsissent suis auxilium ferre nōn possent, **nē** ob eam rem aut suae magnō opere virtūti tribueret, aut ipsōs dēspiceret: sō ita ā patribus māiōribusque suis didicisse, ut magis virtūte quam dolo contenderent, aut insidiis niterentur. Quārē ne committeret, ut is locus ubi cōstitissent ex calamitate populi Rōmāni et interneciōne exercitūs nōmen caperet, aut memoriam prōderet.—B. G. i. 13.

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Si pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiis faciet, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erunt Helvētiī, ubi eōs tu cōstitueris atque esse volueris: sin bellō persequi perseverābis, reminiscere [inquit] et veteris incommodi populi Rōmāni, et pristinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum. Quod imprōvisō ūnum pāgum adortus es, cum ei qui flūmīnē trānsierant suis auxilium ferre nōn possent, **nē** ob eam rem aut tuae magnō opere virtūti tribueris, aut nōs dēspēxeris: nōs ita ā patribus māiōribusque nostris didicimus, ut magis virtūte quam dolo contendāmus, aut insidiis nitāmur. Quārē nōlī committere, ut hic lōcus ubi cōstitimus ex calamitate populi Rōmāni et interneciōne exercitūs nōmen capiat, aut memoriam prōdat.

II. INTERMEDIATE CLAUSES.

340. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive, (1) when it expresses the thought of some other person than the speaker or writer (*Informal Indirect Discourse*), or (2) when it is an integral part of a Subjunctive clause or equivalent Infinitive¹ (*Attraction*).

¹ See note at head of Indirect Discourse, p. 369.

1. Informal Indirect Discourse.

341. A subordinate clause takes the subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker. Thus:—

a. In subordinate clauses in formal indirect discourse (§ 336); but also in Informal Indirect Discourse in the following cases (*b-d*):—

b. When the clause depends upon another containing a *wish*, a *command*, or a *question* expressed indirectly, though not strictly in the form of Indirect Discourse: as, —

animal sentit quid sit quod deceat (Of. i. 14), *an animal feels what it is that is fit.*

hunc sibi ex animō scrūpulum, qui sē diēs noctēque stimulet ac pungat, ut ēvellātis postulat (Ros. Am. 6), *he begs you to pluck from his heart this doubt that goads and stings him day and night.* [Here the relative clause is not a part of the Purpose expressed in *ēvellātis*, but is an assertion made by the subject of *postulat*.]

c. When the main clause of a quotation is merged in the verb of *saying*, or some modifier of it: as, —

sī quid dē his rēbus dicere vellet, fēci potestātem (Catil. iii. 11), *if he wished to say anything about these matters, I gave him a chance.*

tulit dē caede quae in Appiā viā facta esset (Milon. 15), *he passed a law concerning the murder which (in the language of the bill) took place in the Appian Way.*

nisi restituissent statuās, vehementer eis minātur (Verr. ii. 162), *he threatens them violently unless they should restore the statues.* [Here the main clause, "that he will inflict punishment," is contained in *minātur*.]

eis auxilium suum pollicitus sī ab Suēvis premerentur (B. G. iv. 19), *he promised them his aid if they should be molested by the Suevi.* [= *pollicitus sē auxilium lātūrum*, etc.]

prohibitō tollendī, nisi pāctus esset, vim adhibēbat pāctiōni (Ver. iii. 37), *the forbidding to take away unless he came to terms gave force to the bargain.*

d. When a *reason* or an *explanatory fact* is introduced by a relative or by *quod* (rarely *quia*) (see § 321).¹ Thus, —

Pactus omnēs librōs quōs pater suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit (Att. ii. i. 12), *Pactus presented me all the books which (he said) his father had left.*

REMARK.—Under this head even what the speaker himself thought under other circumstances may have the Subjunctive. So also with *quod* even the verb of *saying* may be in the Subjunctive. Here belong also *nōn quia*, *nōn quod*, introducing a reason *expressly to deny it*. (See § 321. Rem., and note 2.)

¹ This usage probably originates in Apodosis, the condition being the supposed truth of the speaker, the main subject. (See Indirect Discourse, Note, p. 370.)

2. Subjunctive of Integral Part (Attraction).

342. A clause depending upon a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an integral part of that clause:¹ as, —

imperat, dum res adiudicetur, hominem ut adservent: cum iudicatum sit, ad se adducant (Verr. iii. 55), *he orders them, till the affair should be decided, to keep the man; when he is judged, to bring him to him.*

etenim quis tam dissolutō animō est, qui haec cum videat, tacere ac neglegere possit (Rosc. Am. 32), *for who is so reckless of spirit, that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent and pass them by?*

mōs est Athēnis laudāri in contiōne cōs qui sint in proeliis interfecti (Or. 151), *it is the custom at Athens for those to be publicly eulogized who have been slain in battle.* [Here laudāri is equivalent to ut laudentur.]

a. But a dependent clause may be closely connected grammatically with a Subjunctive or Infinitive clause, and still take the Indicative, if it is not regarded as a necessary logical part of that clause: as, —

quōdam modō postulat ut, quemadmodum est, sic etiam appellētur, tyrannus (Att. x. 4), *in a manner he demands that as he is, so he may be called, a tyrant.*

si mea in tē essent officia solum tanta quanta magis ā tē ipsō praedicāri quam ā mē ponderari solent, verēcundius ā tē . . . peterem (Fam. ii. 6), *if my good services to you were only so great as they are wont rather to be called by you than to be estimated by me, I should, etc.*

natura fert ut eis faveamus qui eadem pericula quibus nōs perfuncti sumus ingrediuntur (Muren. 4), *nature prompts us to feel friendly towards those who are entering on the same dangers which we have passed through.*

nē hostēs, quod tantum multitudine poterant, suos circumvenire possent (B. G. ii. 8), *lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men.*

NOTE. — The use of the Indicative in such clauses sometimes serves to emphasize the fact, as true independently of the statement contained in the subjunctive or infinitive clause. But in many cases no such distinction between the Indicative and Subjunctive is perceptible.

¹ The Subjunctive in this use is in a manner of the same nature as the Subjunctive in the main clause. A dependent clause in a clause of Purpose is really a part of the purpose, as is seen from the use of *should* and other auxiliaries in English. In a Result clause this is less clear, but the result construction is a branch of the characteristic, to which category the dependent clause in this case evidently belongs, when it takes the Subjunctive.

It is often difficult to distinguish between Informal Indirect Discourse and the Integral Part. Thus in *imperavit ut ea fierent quae opus essent, essent* may stand for *erunt*, and then will be Indirect Discourse, being a part of the thought, but not a part of the order; or it may stand for *erunt*, and then will be Integral Part, being a part of the order itself.

IMPORTANT RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. A noun used to describe another, and denoting the same person or thing, agrees with it in Case (§ 183).
2. Adjectives, adjective pronouns, and participles agree with their nouns in *gender, number, and case* (§ 186).
3. A Relative pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in *gender and number*, but its *case* depends on the construction of the clause in which it stands (§ 198).
4. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in *number and person* (§ 204).
5. Superlatives (more rarely comparatives) denoting order and succession—also *medius, ceterus, reliquus*—usually designate not *what object*, but *what part of it*, is meant (§ 193).
6. The Personal Pronouns have two forms for the genitive plural, that in *-ūm* being used *partitively*, and that in *-ī* oftenest *objectively* (§ 194. *b*).
7. The Reflexive pronoun (*se*), and usually the corresponding possessive (*eius*), are used in some part of the predicate to refer to the subject of the sentence or clause (§ 196).
8. The Possessive Pronouns are used instead of the genitive of a personal pronoun: (1) always instead of the *possessive* genitive, (2) rarely instead of an *objective* genitive (§ 197. *a*).
9. A Possessive representing a genitive may have a genitive in apposition (§ 197. *c*).
10. Adverbs are used to modify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (§ 207).
11. A question of simple fact, requiring the answer YES or NO, is formed by adding the enclitic *-ne* to the emphatic word (§ 210. *a*).
12. When the enclitic *-ne* is added to a negative word,—as in *nōne*,—an *affirmative* answer is expected. The particle *num* suggests a *negative* answer (§ 210. *c*).
13. The subject of a finite verb is in the NOMINATIVE (§ 173. *a*).
14. A noun used to limit or define another, and *not* meaning the same person or thing, is put in the GENITIVE (§ 213).
15. The Subjective Genitive is used with a noun to denote (1) the Author or Owner, (2) the Source or the Material, (3) the Quality (§ 214).
16. Words denoting a Part are followed by the genitive of the Whole to which the part belongs (*Partitive Genitive*, § 216).
17. Nouns of *action, agency, and feeling* govern the genitive of the object (*Objective Genitive*, § 217).
18. Adjectives denoting *desire, knowledge, memory, fulness, power, sharing, guilt*, and their opposites; verbals in *-āx*, and participles in *-as* when used as adjectives, govern the Genitive (§ 218. *a, b*).
19. Verbs of *remembering, forgetting*, take the Genitive of the object when they are used of a *continued state of mind*, but the Accusative when used of a *single act* (§ 219).

20. Verbs of *accusing, condemning, and acquitting* take the Genitive of the Charge or Penalty (§ 220).
21. The DATIVE is used of the object indirectly affected by an action (*Indirect Object*, § 224).
22. Most verbs meaning to *favor, help, please, trust*, and their contraries; also, to *believe, persuade, command, obey, serve, resist, envy, threaten, pardon, and spare*, take the Dative (§ 227).
23. Most verbs compounded with *ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, super*, and some with *circum*, are followed by the Dative of the indirect object (§ 228).
24. Many verbs of *taking away*, and the like, take the Dative (especially of a *person*) instead of the Ablative of Separation (§ 229).
25. The Dative is used with *esse* and similar words to denote Possession (§ 231).
26. The Dative of the Agent is used with the Gerundive, to denote the person on whom the necessity rests (§ 232).
27. The Dative is used to denote the Purpose or End, often with another Dative of the person or thing affected (§ 233. a).
28. The Dative is used with adjectives (and a few adverbs) of *fitness, nearness, service, inclination*, and their opposites (§ 234. a).
29. The Dative is often required, not by any particular word, but by the general meaning of the sentence (*Dative of Reference*, § 235).
30. The Direct Object of a transitive verb is put in the ACCUSATIVE (§ 237).
31. A neuter verb often takes an accusative of kindred meaning (§ 238).
32. Verbs of *naming, choosing, appointing, making, esteeming, showing*, and the like, may take a Predicate Accusative along with the direct object (§ 239. a).
33. Transitive verbs compounded with prepositions sometimes take (in addition to the direct object) a Secondary Object, originally governed by the preposition (§ 239. b).
34. Verbs of *asking and teaching* may take two Accusatives, one of the *person*, and the other of the *thing* (§ 239. c).
35. The subject of an Infinitive is in the Accusative (§ 173. 2).
36. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (§ 240. e).
37. The VOCATIVE is the case of direct address (§ 241).
38. Words signifying *separation or privation* are followed by the ABLATIVE, with or without a preposition (*Ablative of Separation*, § 243).
39. *Opus and cura*, signifying *need*, are followed by the Ablative (§ 243. e).
40. The ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to denote the *source from which anything is derived* or the *material of which it consists* (§ 244).

41. The Ablative, with or without a preposition, is used to express *cause* (§ 245).
42. *Dignus* and *indignus*, *contentus*, *laetus*, *praeditus*, etc., take the Ablative (§ 245. a).
43. The Voluntary Agent after a passive verb is put in the Ablative with *ā* or *ab* (§ 246).
44. The Comparative degree is followed by the Ablative (signifying *than*) (§ 247).
45. The Comparative may be followed by *quam*, *than*. When *quam* is used, the two things compared are put in the same case (§ 247. a).
46. The *manner* of an action is denoted by the Ablative, usually with *cum*, unless a limiting adjective is used with the noun (§ 248).
47. *Accompaniment* is denoted by the Ablative, regularly with *cum* (§ 248. a).
48. The Ablative is used to denote the *means* or *instrument* of an action (§ 248. c. 1).
49. The deponents, *ūtor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, *potior*, and *vescor*, with several of their compounds, govern the Ablative (§ 249).
50. With comparatives and words implying comparison the Ablative is used to denote the *degree of difference* (§ 250).
51. The *quality* of a thing is denoted by the Ablative with a modifier, usually an adjective or limiting genitive (§ 251).
52. The *price* of a thing is put in the Ablative (§ 252).
53. The Ablative of Specification denotes that *in respect to which* anything is or is done (§ 253).
54. A noun or pronoun, with a participle, may be put in the Ablative, to define the *time* or *circumstances* of an action (*Ablative Absolute*).
An adjective, or a second noun, may take the place of the participle in the ablative absolute construction (§ 255 and a).
55. Time *when*, or *within which*, is put in the Ablative; time *how long* in the Accusative (§ 256).
56. The place *from which* is denoted by the Ablative with *ab*, *dē*, or *ex*; the place *to which* (the end of motion), by the Accusative with *ad* or *in* (§ 258. c).
The names of towns or small islands *from which*, as also *domus* and *rūs*, are put in the Ablative without a preposition (§ 258. a).
The names of towns or small islands *to which*, as also *domus* and *rūs*, are put in the Accusative without a preposition (§ 258. b).
57. The place *where* is denoted by the Ablative with the preposition *in* (*Locative Ablative*); but names of towns and small islands are put in the Locative Case (§ 258. c).
The Locative Case is also preserved in *domi*, *belli*, *militiae*, *humi*, *foris*, *rūri*, *terrā marique* (§ 258. d).

58. The Infinitive, with or without a subject accusative, may be used with *en* and similar verbs (1) as the *subject*, (2) as in *apposition* with the subject, or (3) as a *predicate nominative* (§ 270).
59. The Infinitive, without a subject accusative, is used with verbs which imply another action of the same subject to complete their meaning (*Complementary Infinitive*, § 271).
60. The Infinitive, with subject accusative, is used with verbs and other expressions of *knowing, thinking, telling, and perceiving* (*Indirect Discourse*, see § 272).
61. The Infinitive is often used in narrative for the Imperfect Indicative, and takes a subject in the Nominative (*Historical Infinitive*, § 275).
62. SEQUENCE OF TENSES. In complex sentences, a *primary* tense in the main clause is followed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive; a *secondary* tense by the Imperfect or Pluperfect (§ 286).
63. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time as *present, past, or future* with respect to the time of the verb on which they depend (§ 288).
64. PARTICIPLES denote time as *present, past, or future* with respect to the time of the verb in their clause (§ 290).
65. The GERUND and the GERUNDIVE are used, in the oblique cases, in many of the constructions of nouns (§ 297).
For particulars see §§ 298-301.
66. The Former SUPINE (in -um) is used after verbs of *motion to express Purpose* (§ 302).
67. The Latter SUPINE (in -ū) is used only with a few adjectives, with the nouns *fās, nefās, and opus*, and rarely with verbs, to denote an action *in reference to which* the quality is asserted (§ 303).
68. The Hortatory SUBJUNCTIVE is used to express an *exhortation, a command, a concession, or a condition* (§ 266).
69. The Subjunctive is used to express a *wish*. The present tense denotes the wish as *possible*, the imperfect as *unaccomplished* in present time, the pluperfect as *unaccomplished* in past time (*Optative Subjunctive*, § 267).
70. The Subjunctive is used in questions implying *doubt, indignation, or an impossibility* of the thing being done (*Deliberative Subjunctive*, § 268).
71. Prohibition is regularly expressed in classic prose (1) by *nō* with the second person of the Perfect Subjunctive, (2) by *nōlī* with the Infinitive, (3) by *cave* with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (§ 269. a).
72. The Potential Subjunctive is used to denote an action not as *actually performed*, but as *possible* (§ 311. a).
73. *Dum, modo, dummodo, and tantum*, introducing a PROVISIO, take the Subjunctive (§ 314).
74. FINAL clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by *ut* (*utī*), negative *ne* (*ut nō*), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 317).

75. CONSECUTIVE clauses take the Subjunctive introduced by *ut, so that* (negative, *ut nōn*), or by a Relative (pronoun or adverb) (§ 319).
76. *Dignus, indignus, aptus, and idōneus*, take a clause of result with a relative (rarely with *ut*) (§ 320. f).
77. The Causal Particles *quod, quia, and quoniam* take the Indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the *speaker or writer*; the Subjunctive when the reason is given on the authority of *another* (§ 321).
78. *Cum* TEMPORAL, meaning *when*, takes the Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Subjunctive, other tenses in the Indicative (§ 325).
79. *Cum* CAUSAL or CONCESSIVE takes the Subjunctive (§ 326)
For other concessive particles, see § 313.
80. In the INDIRECT DISCOURSE the *main clause* of a Declaratory Sentence is put in the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. All subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive (§ 336. 2).
81. In the Indirect Discourse a *real question* is generally put in the Subjunctive; a *rhetorical question* in the Infinitive (§ 338).
82. All Imperative forms of speech take the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse (§ 339).
83. A Subordinate clause takes the Subjunctive when it expresses the thought of some other person than the writer or speaker (*Informal Indirect Discourse*, § 341).
84. A clause depending on a Subjunctive clause or an equivalent Infinitive will itself take the Subjunctive if regarded as an *integral part* of that clause (*Attraction*, § 342).
For PREPOSITIONS and their cases, see §§ 152, 153.
For CONDITIONAL sentences, see § 304. 2. (Scheme in § 305.)
For ways of expressing PURPOSE, see § 318.

CHAPTER VI.—*Order of Words.*

NOTE.—Latin differs from English in having more freedom in the arrangement of words for the purpose of showing the relative importance of the ideas in a sentence.

343. As in other languages, the Subject tends to stand first, the Predicate last. Thus,—

Pausānias Lacedaemonius māgnus homō sed varius in omni generē vitae fuit.

NOTE.—This happens because from the speaker's ordinary point of view the subject of his discourse is the most important thing in it, as singled out from all other things to be spoken of.

There is in Latin, however, a special tendency to place the verb itself *last of all* after all its modifiers. But many writers purposely avoid the monotony of this arrangement by putting the verb last but one, followed by some single word of the predicate.

344. In *connected discourse* the word most prominent in the speaker's mind comes first, and so on in order of prominence.

This relative prominence corresponds to that indicated in English by a graduated stress of voice (usually called *emphasis*).

NOTE.—This stress or emphasis, however, in English does not necessarily show any violent contrast to the rest of the words in the sentence, but is infinitely varied, constantly increasing and diminishing, and often so subtle as to be unnoticed except in careful study. So, as a general rule, the precedence of words in a Latin sentence is not mechanical, but corresponds to the prominence which a good speaker would mark by skilfully managed stress of voice. A Latin *written* sentence, therefore, has all the clearness and expression which could be given to a *spoken* discourse by the best actor in English.

REMARK.—Some exceptions to this rule will be treated later.

Thus the first chapter of Cæsar's Gallic War rendered so as to bring out so far as possible the shades of emphasis, would run thus:—

GAUL,¹ in the widest sense, is divided² into three parts,³ which are inhabited⁴ (as follows): one⁵ by the Belgians, another⁶ by the Aquitani, the third by a people called in *their own*⁷ language Celts, in *ours* Gauls. THESE,⁸ in their language,⁹ institutions, and laws are *all* of them¹⁰ different. The GAULS¹¹ (proper) are separated¹² from the Aquitani by the river Garonne, from the Belgians by the Marne and Seine. Of THESE¹³ (TRIBES) the bravest of all¹⁴ are the Belgians, for the reason that they live *farthest*¹⁵ away from the CIVILIZA-

Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres, quarum unam incolunt Belgae, aliam Aquitani, tertiam qui ipsorum lingua Celtae, nostra Galli appellantur. Hi omnes lingua, institutis, legibus inter se differunt. Gallös ab Aquitanis Garumna flumen, à Belgis Matrona et Sequana dividit. Horum omnium fortissimi sunt Belgae, propterea quod à cultu atque humanitate

¹ GAUL: emphatic as the *subject of discourse*, as with a title or the like.

² Divided: opposed to the false conception (implied in the use of *omnis*) that the country called Gallia by the Romans is one. This appears more clearly from the fact that Cæsar later speaks of the Galli in the narrower sense as distinct from the other two tribes, who with them inhabit Gallia in the wider sense.

³ Parts: continuing the emphasis begun in *divisa*. Not *three* parts as opposed to any other number, but into *parts* at all.

⁴ Inhabited: emphatic as the next subject, "The inhabitants of these parts are, etc."

⁵ One: given more prominence than it otherwise would have on account of its close connection with *quarum*.

⁶ Another, etc.: opposed to *one*.

⁷ Their own, ours: strongly opposed to each other.

⁸ THESE (tribes): the main subject of discourse again, collecting under one head the names previously mentioned.

⁹ Language, etc.: these are the most prominent ideas as giving the striking points which distinguish the tribes. The emphasis becomes natural in English if we say "these have a different *language*, different *institutions*, different *laws*."

¹⁰ All of them: the emphasis on *all* marks the distributive character of the adjective, as if it were "every one has its own, etc."

¹¹ GAULS: emphatic as referring to the Gauls proper in distinction from the other tribes.

¹² Separated: though this word contains an indispensable idea in the connection, yet it has a subordinate position. It is not emphatic in Latin, as is seen from the fact that it cannot be made emphatic in English. The sense is: The Gauls lie between the Aquitani on the one side, and the Belgae on the other.

¹³ OF THESE: the subject of discourse.

¹⁴ All: emphasizing the superlative idea in *bravest*; they, as Gauls, are assumed to be warlike, but the most so of all of them are the Belgians.

¹⁵ Farthest away: one might expect *absent* (are away) to have a more emphatic place, but it is dwarfed in importance by the predominance of the main idea, the *effeminating influences* from which the Belgae are said to be free. It is not that they live *farthest off* that is insisted on, but that the *civilization of the province*, etc., which would *soften* them, comes less in their way. It is to be noticed also that *absent* has already been anticipated by the construction of *cultu* and still more by *longestimo*, so that when it comes it amounts only to a formal part of the sentence. Thus because the *civilization*, etc., of the province (which would soften them) is *farthest* from them.

TION and REFINEMENT of the PROVINCE, and because they are LEAST¹⁶ of all of them subject to the visits of *traders*,¹⁷ and to the (consequent) importation of *such things as*¹⁸ tend to *soften*¹⁹ their warlike spirit; and are also *nearest*²⁰ to the Germans, who live *across the Rhine*,²¹ and with whom they are *incessantly*²² at war. For the same reason the HELVETII, as well, are superior to all the *other* Gauls in valor, because they are engaged in *almost daily* battles with the Germans, either defending their own boundaries from *them*, or *themselves* making war on *those of the Germans*. Of ALL THIS country, one part, the one which as has been said the *Gauls* (proper) occupy, BEGINS at the river Rhone. Its boundaries are the *river Garonne*, the *ocean*, and the *confines* of the Belgians. It even REACHES on the side of the *Sequani* and *Helvetians* the river Rhine. Its *general direction* is towards the north. The BELGIANS begin at the *extreme limits* of Gaul; they reach (on this side) as far as the lower part of the Rhine. They spread to the northward and eastward.

AQUITANIA extends from the Garonne to the Pyrenees, and that part of the ocean that lies towards Spain. It runs off westward and northward.

provinciae longissimè absunt, minimè-que ad eos mercatōres saepe com-
meant atque ea quae ad effeminandōs
animōs pertinent, important, proximi-
que sunt Germānis, qui trans Rhēnum
incolunt, quibuscum continenter bel-
lum gerunt. Quā dē causā Helvētīi
quoque reliquos Gallōs virtūte praeced-
dunt, quod ferē cotidiānis proeliis
cum Germānis contendunt, cum aut
suis finibus eos prohibent, aut ipsi in
eōrum finibus bellum gerunt. Eōrum
ūna pars, quam Gallōs obtinere dic-
tum est, initium capit ā flūmine Rho-
danō; continentur Garumnā flūmine,
Oceanō, finibus Belgārum; attingit
etiam ab Sequanis et Helvētīis flūmen
Rhēnum; vergit ad septentrionēs.
Belgae ab extrēnis Galliae finibus
oriuntur: pertinent ad inferiōrem par-
tem flūminis Rhēni; spectant in sep-
tentrionem et orientem solem. Aquitania ā
Garumnā flūmine ad Pyrenaeos montēs et eam partem Oceani,
quae est ad Hispaniam, pertinet;
spectat inter occasum solis et septen-
trionēs.

¹⁶ LEAST: made emphatic here by a common Latin order, — the *chiasmus* (see *f.* p. 390).

¹⁷ *traders*: the fourth member of the *chiasmus* opposed to *cultū* and *hūmanitāte*.

¹⁸ *Such things as*: the importance of the *nature* of the importations overshadows the fact that they are *imported*, which fact is anticipated in "*traders*."

¹⁹ *Soften*: cf. what is said in note 15. They are *brave* because they have less to *soften* them, their native barbarity being assumed.

²⁰ *Nearest*: the same idiomatic prominence as in 16, but varied by a special usage (see *f.* p. 390) combining *chiasmus* and *anaphora*.

²¹ *Across the Rhine*; i.e. and so are perfect savages.

²² *Incessantly*: the continuance of the warfare becomes the all-important idea, as if it were, "and not a day passes in which they are not at war with them."

REMARK. — The more important word is never placed last for emphasis. The apparent cases of this usage (when the emphasis is not misconceived) are cases where a word is added as an afterthought, either real or affected, and so has its position not in the sentence to which it is appended, but, as it were, in a new one.

a. In any phrase the determining and most significant word comes first: as, —

1. Adjective and Noun: —

omnēs hominēs decet, EVERY *man* ought (opposed to some who do not).
Lūcius Catilina nōbili genere nātus fuit magnā vi et animi et corporis sed ingeniō malō prāvōque (Sall. Cat. 5), *Lucius Catiline was born of a NOBLE family, with GREAT force of mind and body, but with a NATURE that was evil and depraved*. [Here the adjectives in the first part are the emphatic and important words, no antithesis between the nouns being as yet thought of; but in the second branch the *noun* is meant to be opposed to those before mentioned, and immediately takes the prominent place, as is seen by the natural English emphasis, thus making a *chiasmus*.]

2. Word with modifying case: —

cui rei magis Epaminōndam, Thēbānōrum imperatōrem, quam victōriæ Thēbānōrum cōsulere decuit (Inv. i. 69), *what should Epaminondas, commander of the THEBANS, have aimed at more than the VICTORY of the Thebans?*

lacrimā nihil citius arēscit (id. i. 109), *nothing dries quicker than a TEAR*.
nemō ferē laudis cupidus (De Or. i. 14), *hardly any one desirous of GLORY*.
 (cf. Manil. 7, *avidī laudis*, EAGER for glory).

b. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity, demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns and adverbs, tend to precede the word or words to which they belong: as,

cum aliquā perturbātōne (Of. i. 137), *with SOME disturbance*.
hōc ūnō præstāmus (De Or. i. 32), *in THIS one thing we excel*.
cēteræ ferē artēs, *the OTHER arts*.

NOTE. — This happens because such words are usually emphatic; but often the words connected with them are more so, and in such cases the pronouns, etc., yield the emphatic place: as, —

causa aliqua (De Or. i. 250), *some CASE*.

stilus ille tuus (id. i. 257), *that STYLE of yours* (in an antithesis; see passage).

Rōmam quæ asportāta sunt (Ver. iv. 121), *what were carried to ROME* (in contrast to what remained at Syracuse).

c. When *sum* is used as the Substantive verb (§ 172, note), it regularly stands first, or at any rate before its subject: as, —

est viri magni pūnīre sōtēs (Off. i. 82), *it is the duty of a great man to punish the guilty*.

- d. The verb may come first, or have a prominent position either (1) because the *idea* in it is emphatic: as, —

dīcēbat idem Cotta (Off. ii. 59), *Cotta used to SAY the same thing* (opposed to others' *boasting*).

idem fecit adulescēns M. Antōnius (id. ii. 49), *the same thing was DONE by M. Antonius in his youth*. [Opposed to *dixi* just before.]

facis benignē (Lael.), *you ACT kindly*. [Cf. *benignē facis, you are very KIND* (you act KINDLY).]

- (2) or because the *predication of the whole statement* is emphatic: as, —

prōpēnsior benignitās esse debēbit in calamitōsīs nisi forte erunt digni calamitātē (Off. ii. 62), *unless perchance they REALLY DESERVE their misfortune*.

praesertim cum scribat (Panaetius) (id. iii. 8), *especially when he DOES SAY* (in his books). [Opposed to something omitted by him.]

- (3) or the *tense* only may be emphatic: as, —

fuius Trōes, fuit Ilium (Æn. ii. 325), *we have ceased to be Trojans, Troy is now no more*.

loquor autem de commūnibus amicitīs (Off. iii. 45), *but I am speaking now, etc.*

- e. Often the connection of two emphatic phrases is brought about by giving the precedence to the most prominent part of each, leaving the less prominent parts to follow in inconspicuous places: —

plūres solent esse causae (Of. i. 28), *there are USUALLY SEVERAL reasons*.

quos amissus civis eos Martis vis perculit (Marc. 17), *WHAT fellow-citizens we have LOST, have been stricken down by the violence of war*.

maximas tibi omnes gratias agimus (Marc. 33), *we ALL render you the WARMEST thanks*.

haec res unius est propria Caesaris (Marc. 11), *THIS exploit belongs to Caesar ALONE*.

obiurgationes etiam nonnunquam incidunt necessariae (Of. i. 136), *OCCASIONS FOR REBUKE also SOMETIMES occur which are unavoidable*.

- f. Antithesis between two pairs of ideas is indicated either (1) by placing the pairs in the same order (*anaphora*) or (2) in exactly the opposite order (*chiasmus*¹).

- (1) *rerum copia verborum copiam gignit* (De Orat. iii. 125), *ABUNDANCE of MATTER produces COPIOUSNESS of EXPRESSION*.

- (2) *leges supplicio improbos afficiunt, defendunt ac tuentur bonos* (Fin. iii. 5), *the laws VISIT PUNISHMENTS upon the WICKED, but the GOOD they DEFEND and PROTECT*.

¹ So-called from the Greek letter X (*chi*), on account of the criss-cross. Thus χ .

NOTE. — Chiasmus is very common in Latin, and seems in fact the more inartificial construction. In an artless narrative one might hear, "The women were all *drowned*, they *saved* the men."

nōn igitur utilitatem amicitia sed utilitās amicitiam cōsecuta est (Lael. 14),
it is not then that friendship has followed upon advantage, but advantage upon friendship. [Here the chiasmus is only grammatical, the ideas being in the parallel order.] (See also in the example from Caesar, p. 388: longissimē, minimē, proximī.)

g. A modifier of a phrase or some part of it is often embodied within the phrase (cf. a): as, —

dē commūnī hominū memoriā (Tusc. i. 59), in regard to the UNIVERSAL memory of man.

h. A favorite order with the poets is the *interlocked*, by which the attribute of one pair comes between the parts of the other (*synchysis*): as, —
et superiectō pavidæ nātārunt aequore dāmae (Hor. Od. i. 2. 11).

NOTE. — This is often joined with chiasmus: as, —

arma nōndum expiātis ūncta crueribus (id. ii. 1. 5).

i. Frequently unimportant words follow in the train of more emphatic ones with which they are grammatically connected, and so acquire a prominence out of proportion to their importance: as, —

dictitābat sē hortulōs aliquōs emere velle (Offic. iii. 58), gave out that he wanted to buy some gardens. [Here aliquōs is less emphatic than emere, but precedes it on account of the emphasis on hortulōs.]

j. The copula is generally felt to be of so little importance that it may come in anywhere where it sounds well; but usually under cover of more emphatic words: as, —

cōsul ego quæsi, cum vōs mihi essētis in cōsiliō (Repub. iii. 28), as consul I held an investigation in which you attended me in council.
falsum est id tōtum (id. ii. 28), that is all false.

k. Many expressions have acquired an invariable order: as, —
rēs publica; populus Rōmānus; honoris causa; pāce tanti viri.

NOTE. — These had, no doubt, originally an emphasis which required such an arrangement, but in the course of time have changed their shade of meaning. Thus, *senātus populusque Rōmānus* originally stated with emphasis the official bodies, but became fixed so as to be the only permissible form of expression.

l. The Romans had a fondness for emphasizing persons, so that a name or a pronoun often stands in an emphatic place: as, —

[dixit] venālis quidem sē hortōs nōn habēre (Offic. iii. 58), [said] that he didn't have any gardens for sale, to be sure.

m. Kindred words, as in *figūra etymologica*, often come together:

ita sēnsim sine sēnsū actās senēscit (C. M. 38), then gradually, without being perceived, man's life grows old.

Special Rules.

. 345. The following are special rules of arrangement :—

a. 1. Prepositions (except *tenus* and *versus*) regularly precede their nouns ; 2. but a monosyllabic preposition is often placed between a noun and its adjective or limiting genitive : as,—

quem ad modum; quam ob rem; magnō cum metū; omnibus cum cōpiis;
nulla in rē (cf. § 344. i).

b. *Itaque* regularly comes first in its sentence or clause; *enim*, *autem*, *vērō*, *quoque*, never first, but usually second, sometimes third if the second word is emphatic; *quidem* never first, but after the emphatic word; *nō . . . quidem* include the emphatic word or words.

c. *Inquam*, *inquit*, are always used parenthetically, following one or more words. So often *orōdō*, *opīnor*, and in poetry sometimes *precor*.

The negative precedes the word it especially affects; but if it belongs to no one word in particular, it generally precedes the verb; if it is especially emphatic, it begins the sentence. (See example, 344. f, note.)

e. In the arrangement of clauses, the Relative clause more often comes first in Latin, and usually contains the antecedent noun : as,—

quōs āmisimus cīvīs, eōs Mārtis vis perculit (Marc. 17), *those citizens whom we have lost*, etc.

Structure of the Period.

NOTE.—Latin, unlike modern languages, expresses the relation of words to each other by *inflection* rather than by *position*. Hence its structure not only admits of great variety in the arrangement of words, but is especially favorable to that form of sentence which is called a Period. In a period, the sense is expressed by the sentence *as a whole*, and is held in suspense till the delivery of the last word.

An English sentence does not often exhibit this form of structure. It was imitated, sometimes with great skill and beauty, by many of the earlier writers of English prose; but its effect is better seen in poetry, in such a passage as the following :—

“ High on a throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
Satan exalted sat.” — *Paradise Lost*, Book II. 1-5.

But in argument or narrative, the best English writers more commonly give short clear sentences, each distinct from the rest, and saying one thing by itself. In Latin, on the contrary, the story or argument is viewed as a whole; and the logical relation among all its parts is carefully indicated. Hence—

346. In the structure of the Period, the following rules are to be observed :—

a. In general the main subject or object is put in the main clause, not in a subordinate one (according to § 344) : as,—

Hannibal cum recēnsuisset auxilia Gādēs profectus est, *when Hannibal had reviewed, etc.*

Volsci exiguam spem in armis, aliā undique abscissā, cum tentāssent, præter cētera adversa, locō quoque iniquō ad pūgnam congressi, iniquōre ad fugam, cum ab omni parte caederentur, ad precēs a certāmine versī dēditō imperātore trāditisque armis, sub iugum missi, cum singulis vestimentis, ignōminiae clādisque plēvi dimituntur (Liv. iv. 10). [Here the main fact is *the return of the Volscians*. But the striking circumstances of the surrender, etc., which in English would be detailed in a number of brief independent sentences, are put in the several subordinate clauses within the main clause, so that the passage gives a complete picture in one sentence.]

b. Clauses are usually arranged in the order of prominence in the mind of the speaker; so, usually, *cause* before *result*; *purpose*, *manner*, and the like, before the *act*.

c. In co-ordinate clauses, the copulative conjunctions are frequently omitted (*asyndeton*). In such cases the connection is made clear by some antithesis indicated by the position of words.

d. A change of subject, when required, is marked by the introduction of a pronoun, if the new subject has already been mentioned. But such change is often purposely avoided by a change in structure, — the less important being merged in the more important by the aid of participles or of subordinate phrases: as, —

quem ut barbari incendium effugisse vidērunt, tēlis ēminus ēmissis interfecerunt, *when the barbarians saw that he had escaped, THEY threw darts at HIM and killed HIM.*

celeriter confectō negotiō, in hiberna legiōnēs revertērunt, *the matter was soon finished, AND the legions, etc.*

e. So the repetition of a noun, or the substitution of a pronoun for it, is avoided unless a different case is required: as, —

dolōrem si nōn poterō frangere occultābō, *if I cannot conquer the pain, I will hide IT.* [Cf. *if I cannot conquer I will hide the pain.*]

f. The Romans were careful to close a period with an agreeable succession of long and short syllables. Thus, —

quod scis nihil prōdest, quod necis multum obest (Or. 166), *what you know is of no use, what you do not know does great harm.*

PART THIRD.—PROSODY (RULES OF VERSE).

CHAPTER I.—*Quantity.*

NOTE.—The poetry of the Indo-European people seems originally to have been somewhat like our own, depending on accent for its metre and disregarding the natural quantity of syllables. The Greeks, however, developed a form of poetry which, like music, pays close attention to the natural quantity of syllables; and the Romans borrowed their metrical forms in classical times from the Greeks. Hence Latin poetry does not depend, like ours, upon accent and rhyme; but is measured, like musical strains, by the length of syllables. Especially does it differ from our verse in not regarding the prose accent of the words, but substituting for that an entirely different system of metrical accent or *ictus* (see § 358. a). This depends upon the character of the measure used, falling regularly on certain long syllables. Each syllable is counted as either long or short in Quantity;¹ and a long syllable is generally reckoned equal in length to two short ones (for exceptions, see § 355. c-e).

The quantity of radical or stem-syllables—as of short *a* in *pāter* or of long *a* in *māter*—can be learned only by observation and practice, unless determined by the general rules of quantity. Most of the rules of Prosody are only arbitrary rules devised to assist the memory; the syllables being long or short *because the ancients pronounced them so*. The actual practice of the Romans in regard to the quantity of syllables is ascertained chiefly from the usage of the poets; but the ancient grammarians give some assistance, and in some inscriptions the long vowels are distinguished in various ways,—by marks over the letters, for instance, or by doubling.

Since Roman poets borrowed very largely from the poetry and mythology of the Greeks, numerous Greek words, especially proper names, make an important part of Latin poetry. These words are generally employed in accordance with the Greek, and not the Latin, laws of quantity. Where these laws vary in any important point, the variations will be noticed in the rules below.

1. General Rules.

347. The following are General Rules of Quantity (cf. § 18):—

a. VOWEL. A vowel before another vowel or *h* is short: as, *vīa*, *trāhō*.

¹ The terms *long* and *short*, when used of Latin sounds, apply to their *quantity*; when used of English sounds, to their *quality*.

EXCEPTIONS. 1. In the genitive form *-ius*, *i* is long, except usually in *alterius*. Thus, *utrius*, *nūllius*. It is, however, sometimes made short in verse (§ 83. *b*).

2. In the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension, *e* is long between two vowels: as, *diēi*; but it is short in *fidēi*, *rēi*, *spēi*.

NOTE.— It was once long in these also: as, *plānus* *fidēi* (Ennius, at end of hexameter).

A is also long before *i* in the old genitive of the first declension: as, *aulāi*.

3. In the conjugation of *fiō*, *i* is long except when followed by *er*. Thus, *fiō*, *fiēbam*, *fiām*, but *fiēri*, *fiērem*; so also *fit*, by § 354. *a*. 3.

4. In many Greek words the vowel in Latin represents a long vowel or diphthong, and retains its original long quantity: as, *T-ōes* (*Τρώες*), *Thālīa* (*Θαλία*), *hērōas* (*ἥρωας*), *āēr* (*ἄēr*).

NOTE.— But many Greek words are more or less Latinized in this respect: as, *Acadēmīa*, *chorēa*, *Malēa*, *platēa*.

5. In *shēu* and *dīus*, and sometimes in *Dīāna* and *ōhe* the first vowel is long.

b. DIPHTHONG. A Diphthong is long: as, *fōēdus*, *oūi*, *dēinde*.

EXCEPTION. The preposition *prae* in compounds is generally shortened before a vowel: as, *prae-ūstis* (*Æn. vii. 524*), *prae-eunte* (*id. v. 186*).

NOTE.— *U* following *q*, *s*, or *g*, does not make a diphthong with a following vowel (see § 4. n. 3).

c. CONTRACTION. A vowel formed by contraction (*crasis*) is long: as, *nīi*, from *nihil*; *currūs*, genitive for *currui*.

But often two syllables are united by Synæresis without contraction: as when *pāriētībūs* is pronounced *paryētibūs*.

d. POSITION. A vowel, though short, followed by two consonants or a double consonant, makes a long syllable: as, *adventus*, *cortex*.

But if the two consonants are a mute followed by *l* or *r* the syllable may be either long or short (*common*); as, *alacris* or *alāoris*; *pātris* or *pātris*.

NOTE 1.— Any vowel before *l* consonant makes a long syllable (except in *biugis*, *quadriugis*).

But it is probable that in all such cases the vowel was long by nature. So also *rēiciō*, etc. (from *rē-laciō*), cf. note 2.

NOTE 2.— The compounds of *iaciō*, though written with one *i*, commonly retain the long vowel of the prepositions with which they are compounded, as if before a consonant, and lengthen the short as if by Position. (But how the syllables were pronounced is uncertain.) Thus, —

obiciō hosti (at the end of a hexameter, *Æn. iv. 549*).

iniciō et saltū (at the beginning of a hexameter, *Æn. ix. 552*).

prociō tēla manū (at the beginning of a hexameter, *Æn. vi. 896*).

The later poets sometimes shorten the preposition in trisyllabic forms, and the prepositions ending in a vowel are sometimes contracted as if the verb began with a vowel. Thus:—

- (1) turpe pu|tās āb|ci (Ov. Pont. ii. 3, 37).
cūr an|nōs ōb|cis (Claud. Cons. Hon. iv. 364).
(2) rē|ōē cā|pellās (Ecl. iii. 96, at end).

REMARK.—The *y* or *w* sound resulting from *synæresis* has the effect of a consonant in making position: as, *abyētis* (abyetis), *fluviōrum* (*fluvyōrum*). Conversely, when the semivowel becomes a vowel, position is lost: as, *silvæ*, for *silvæ*.

2. In early Latin, *s* at the end of words was not sounded, and hence does not make position with another consonant.

REMARK.—A syllable made long by the rule in 1, but containing a short vowel, is said to be long by POSITION: as in *docētne*. The rules of Position do not, in general, apply to final vowels.

2. Final Syllables.

348. The Quantity of Final Syllables is determined by the following Rules:—

1. Words of one syllable ending in a vowel are long: as, *mē*, *tū*, *hī*, *nē*.

The attached particles *-nē*, *-quē*, *-vē*, *-cē*, *-ptē*, and *rē* (*rēd-*) are short; *sē* is long. Thus, *sēcēdit*, *exercitumquē rēdūcit*. But *re-* is often long in *rēligiō* (*relligiō*), *rētuli* (*rettuli*), *rēpuli* (*reppuli*).

2. Nouns and adjectives of one syllable are long: as, *ōl*, *ōs* (*ōris*), *bōs*, *pār*, *vīs*.

EXCEPTIONS. *ōr* (sometimes long), *fēl*, *lāc*, *mēl*, *ōs* (*ossis*), *vīr*, *tōt*, *quōt*.

3. Most monosyllabic Particles are short: as, *ān*, *īn*, *cīs*, *nēc*. But *ōc*, *orās*, *cūr*, *ēn*, *nōn*, *quīn*, *sīn* — with adverbs in *o*: as, *hīc*, *hūc*, *sīc* — are long.

4. Final *a* in words declined by cases is short, except in the ablative singular of the first declension; in all other words final *a* is long. Thus, *eā stellā* (nom.), *cum eā stellā* (abl.); *frūstrā*, *vocā* (imperat.), *postē*, *trigintā*.

EXCEPTIONS. *ēiā*, *itā*, *quā*, *putā* (*suppose*): and, in late use, *trigintā*, etc.

5. Final *e* is short, as in *nūbē*, *dūcitē*, *saepē*. Except—

1. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, *fidē* (also *famē*), *hōdiē* (*hōi diē*), *quārē* (*quā rē*).

2. In Greek neuters plural of the second declension: as, *ōtē*.

3. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, with others of like form: as, *altē*, *miserē*, *apertē*, *saepissimē*. So *ferē*, *fermē*, probably of same origin.

4. In the imperative singular of the second conjugation: *as, vidē*.

EXCEPTIONS. To 3: *benē, malē; infernē, supernē*. To 4: sometimes, *oavē, habē, tacē, valē, vidē* (cf. § 375. 6).

6. Final *i* is long: as in *turri, filli, audi*.

But it is common in *mihī, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi*; and short in *nisi, quasi, oui* (when making two syllables), and in Greek vocatives, as *Alexi*.

7. Final *o* is common; but long in datives and ablatives, also, almost invariably, in verbs, and in nouns of the third declension.

EXCEPTIONS. *oitō, modō, licō, profectō, dummodō, immō, egō, duō, octō*.

8. Final *u* is long. Final *y* is short.

9. Final *as, es, os*, are long; final *is, us, ys*, are short; as, *nefās, rūpēs, servōs* (acc.), *honōs*; *hostis, amictis, Tethys*.

EXCEPTIONS. *as* is short in Greek plural accusatives, as *lampadēs*; and in *anēs*.

es is short in nouns of the third declension (lingual) having a short vowel in the stem¹: as, *mīlēs* (-itis), *obsēs* (-idis), — except *abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, pēs*; in the present of *esse* (*ēs, adēs*); in the preposition *penēs*, and in the plural of Greek nouns, as *hērōēs, lampadēs*.

os is short in *compōs, impōs*; in the Greek nominative ending, as *barbitōs*; also, in the old nominative ending of the second declension, as *servōs* (later *servus*).

is in plural cases is long, as in *bonis, nōbis, vōbis, omnis* (accusative plural).

is is long in *flis, alis, vis* (with *quīvis*, etc.), *vellis, mālīs, nōlis*; in the second person singular of the fourth conjugation, as *audis* (where it is the stem-vowel); and sometimes in the forms in *-eris* (perfect subjunctive), where it was originally long.

us is long (by contraction) in the genitive singular and nominative, accusative, and vocative plural of the fourth declension; and in nouns of the third declension having *ū* (long) in the stem: as, *virtūs* (-ūtis), *inocūs* (-ūdīs). But *pectūs, -ūtis*.

10. Of other final syllables, those ending in a consonant, except *-o*, are short. Thus, *amāt, amātūr*; but, *istūo, ūōo*.

EXCEPTIONS. *dōnēc, fēc, nēc*, sometimes *hēc*; *lār, aethēr, orār, hēr, splēr*.

¹ The quantity of the stem-vowel may be seen in the genitive singular.

3. Penultimate Syllables.

349. A noun or adjective is said to *increase*, when in any case it has more syllables than in the nominative singular.

A verb is said to increase, when in any part it has more syllables than in the stem. Thus, *amā-tis* (stem, *amā-*), *tegi-tis* (stem, *tege-*), *capi-unt* (stem, *capi-*).

In such words as *stellārum*, *corpōris*, *amātis*, *tegitis*, the penultimate syllable is called the *increment*.¹ In *itineribus*, *amāvērītis*, the syllables marked are called the first, second, and third increments of the noun or verb.

NOTE. — In such words as *Iūppiter*, *Iōvis*; *senex*, *sēnis*, the syllables whose vowel-quantity is marked are called increments. These forms must be referred to lost nominatives from the same stems (cf. §§ 60, 61, foot-note). So *itineribus* has really only two increments as from *†itinus*.

350. In increments of Nouns and Adjectives, *a* and *o* are generally *long*; *e*, *i*, *u*, *y*, generally *short*: as, —

aetās, *aetātis*; *honor*, *honōris*; *servos*, *servōrum*; *opus*, *opēris*; *carmen*, *carminis*; *murmur*, *murmūris*; *pecus*, *pecūdīs*; *chlamys*, *chlamydis*. Exceptions are: —

a: short in *baccar* (-āris), *hēpar* (-ātis), *iubar* (-āris), *lār* (-lāris), *mās* (māris), *nectar* (-āris), *pār* (pāris), *sāl* (sālis), *vas* (vādis), *daps* (dāpis), *fax* (fācis), *anthrax* (-ācis).

o: short in neuters of the third declension (except *ōs*, *ōris*): as, *corpus* (-ōris); also in *arbor* (-ōris), *scrobs* (scrōbis), *ops* (ōpis), *bōs* (bōvis), *memor* (-ōris), *Iūppiter* (Iōvis), *Hector* (-ōris), and compounds of *-pūs* (as, *trīpūs*, *-pōdis*).

e: long in increments of fifth declension: as, *diēs*, *diēi*; also in *hērēs* (-ēdis), *lēs* (lēdis), *loouplēs* (-ētis), *meroēs* (-ēdis), *plēba* (plēbis), *quīēs* (-ētis), *rēs* (rēdis), *vēr* (vēris), *orātēr* (-ēris). But see § 347. 2.

i: long in most nouns and adjectives in *ix*: as, *fēlicis*, *rādīcis* (except *filix*, *nix*, *strix*); also in *dīs* (dītis), *glīs* (glīris), *līs* (lītis), *vīs* (vīris), *Quirītes*, *Samnītēs*.

u: long in forms from nouns in *-ūs*: as, *palūs*, *palūdis*; *tellūs*, *tellūris*; *virtūs*, *virtūtis*; also in *lūs*, *lūcis*; [*frūs*], *frūdis*; *fūs*, *fūris*.

¹ The rules of Increment are purely arbitrary, as the syllables are long or short according to the proper quantity of the Stem or of the formative terminations. The quantity of noun-stems appears in the schedule of the third declension (see § 67); and the quantity of inflection-endings is seen under the various inflections, where it is better to learn it. For quantities of Greek stems, see § 63.

351. In the increment of Verbs the characteristic vowels are as follows:—

1. In the first conjugation **ā**: as, *amāre, amātur.*
2. In the second conjugation **ē**: as, *monēre, monētur.*
3. In the third conjugation **ē, ī**: as, *tegēre, tegitur.*
4. In the fourth conjugation **ī**: as, *audire, auditur.*

EXCEPTION. **dō** and its compounds have **ā**: as, *dāre, circumdābat*

a. In other verbal increments (not stem-vowels) —

a is always long: as, *moneāris, tegāmus.*

e is long: as, *tegēbam, audiēbar.*

NOTE. — But **e** is short before **-ram, -rim, -rō** in the future personal endings **-bāris, -bōre**; and sometimes in the perfect **-erunt** (as *steteruntque comae*, *Æn. ii. 774*).

i is long in forms which follow the analogy of the fourth conjugation: as, *petivī, lacessitus* (in *others* short: as, *monitus*); also in the subjunctive present of *esse* and *velle* (*simus, velimus*); and (rarely) in the endings **-rimus, -ritis**. It is short in the future forms *amābitis*, etc.

o is found only in imperatives, and is always long: as, *monētō*, etc.

u is short in *simus, volumus, quaesimus*; in the Supine and its derivatives it is long: as, *solūturus*.

b. Perfects and Supines of two syllables lengthen the first syllable: as, *iuvī, iutum (iuvō), vidī, visum (videō); fugī (fugō).*

EXCEPTIONS. *bībī, dēdī, fidī, scidī, stēti, stitī, tūti*; — *otum, dātum, litum, litum, quitum, rātum, rūtum, sātum, situm, stātum*. In some compounds of **stō**, **stātum** is found (long), as *prōstātum*.

c. In reduplicated perfects the vowel of the reduplication is short; the following syllable is, also, usually short: as, *occidī (ocdō), didici (disco), pūpūgi (pungō), occurrī (ourrō), tētendi (tendō), mōmordi (mordeō)*. But *occidī* from *caedō*, *pepēdi* from *pēdō*.

352. The following terminations are preceded by a long vowel.

1. **-al, -ar**: as, *vectigal, pulvinar.*

EXCEPTIONS. *animal, cāpital, iubar.*

2. **-brum, -orum, -trum**: as, *lāvācorum, dēlābrum, vērātrum.*

3. **-dō, -ga, -gō**: as, *formidō, gurgis, imāgō.*

EXCEPTIONS. *ocdō, dividō, edō, mōdo, sōlidō, spādō, trēpidō; calliga, fuga, tōga, plāga; āgō, tēgō, nēgō, rēgō, harpāgō, hēgō, lēgō*. So *āgō*.

4. **-le, -les (-lē), -lis**: as, *ancile, miles, crūdēlis, hostilis.*

EXCEPTIONS. *māle*; *indōlē*, *sūbōlē*; *grācilis*, *hūmilis*, *similis*, *stērilis*; and verbal adjectives in *-ilis*: as, *dōcilis*, *fācilis*, *terribilis*, *amābilis*.

5. *-ma*, *-men*, *-mentum*: as, *poēma*, *flūmen*, *īumentum*

EXCEPTIONS. *ānima*, *laorīma*, *victīma*; *tāmen*, *colūmen*; with *rēgimen* and the like from verb-stems in *e*.

6. *-mus*, *-nus*, *-rus*, *-sus*, *-tus*, *-neus*, *-rius*: as, *extrēmus*, *sūpīnus*, *oetōnī*, *sēvērus*, *fūmōsus*, *pēritus*, *sēnārius*, *extrāneus*.

EXCEPTIONS. (a.) *I* before *-mus*: as, *finītīmus*, *mārītīmus* (except *bīmūs*, *trīmūs*, *quadrīmūs*, *opīmūs*, *mīmūs*, *līmūs*); and in superlatives (except *īmūs*, *prīmūs*): also, *dōmus*, *hūmus*, *nēmūs*, *oālēmūs*, *thālāmūs*.

(b.) *I* before *-nus*: as in *crāstīnus*, *fraxīnus*, etc. (except *dīvīnus*, *mātītīnus*, *vespertīnus*, *rēpentīnus*); *ācīnus*, *āsīnus*, *oēmīnus*, *cōphīnus*, *ēmīnus*, *dōmīnus*, *fācīnus*, *fraxīnus*, *prōtīnus*, *termīnus*, *vātīcīnus*; also, *manus*, *ōceānus*, *plātānus*; *gēnus*, *Vēnus*. So *ō* in *bōnus*, *ōnus*, *sōnus*, *tōnus*.

(c.) *ē* before *-rus* (*-ra*, *-rum*): as, *mērus*, *hēdēra* (except *prōcērus*, *sinoērus*, *sēvērus*). In like manner, *barbārus*, *chōrus*, *nīrus*, *pīrus*; *sātīra*, *amphōra*, *ancōra*, *līra*, *pīra*, *purpūra*; *fōrum*, *suppārūm*, *gārūm*, *pārūm*.

(d.) *lātus*, *mētus*, *vētus*, *anhēlītus*, *dīgītus*, *servītūs*, *spīrītūs*; *quōtus*, *tōtus*; *arbūtus*, *hābītus*, and the like.

7. *-na*, *-ne*, *-nis*: as, *carīna*, *māne*, *inānis*.

EXCEPTIONS. *advēna*, *angīna*, *dōmīna*, *fēmīna*, *māchīna*, *mīna*, *gēna*, *pāgīna*, *pātīna*, *sarcīna*, *trūtīna*, and compounds with *-gena*; *bōne*, *sīne*; *cānis*, *cīnis*, *iūvēnis*.

8. *-re*, *-ris*, *-ta*, *-tis*: as, *altāre*, *sālūtāris*, *mōnēta*, *immītis*.

EXCEPTIONS. *māre*, *hīlāris*, *rōta*, *nōta*, *sātis*, *sītis*, *pōtis*, and most nouns in *-ita*.

9. *-tim*, *-tum*, and syllables beginning with *v*: as, *privātīm*, *queroētum*, *ōlīva*.

EXCEPTIONS. *affātīm*, *stātīm*; *nīvis* (*nix*); *brēvis*, *grāvis*, *lōvis* (*light*); *nōvus*, *nōvem*; and several verb roots (as, *iūvō*, *fāvēō*); also, *ōvis*, *bōvis*, *lōvis*.

10. *-dex*, *-lex*, *-mex*, *-rex*, *-dix*, *-nix*: and the numeral endings *-gintī*, *-gintā*: as, *īfūdex*, *īlex*, *rāgīx*, *vīgintī*, *trīgintā*.

EXCEPTIONS. *oūlex*, *sīlex*, *rūmex*.

353. The following terminations are preceded by a short vowel:—

1. -ous, -us, -ius: as, ratiōus, cōlidus, glādiōus.

EXCEPTIONS. opāous, ānious; anticus, aprius, fious, mendōus, postious, pūdius; fidus, nīdus, sīdus; and ū before -ius: as, crūdus, nūdus; ē before -ius, as phāsēus (except gēus, scōlus); āsilius; īlious.

2. -nō, -nor, -rō, -ror, in verbs: as, cēstinō, crīmīnor, gērā quērōr.

EXCEPTIONS. dīvinō, festīnō, prōpīnō, sāginō, opīnor, inollnō; dēolārō, spērō, spīrō, ōrō, dūrō, mīror.

3. -ba, -bō, -pa, -pō: as, fāba, bībō, lūpa, crēpō.

EXCEPTIONS. glēba, scrība; būbō, nūbō, scrībō; pāpa, pūpa, rīpa, scōpa, stūpa; cāpō, rēpō, stīpō.

4. -tās (in nouns). -ter and -tus (in adverbs): as, cīvītās, fortīter, pēnītus.

5. -culus, -cellus, -lentus, -tūdō: as, fasciculus, ōcellus, lūcōlentus, māgnītūdō.

354. Rules for the quantity of Derivatives are:—

a. Forms from the same STEM have the same quantity: as, āmō, āmāvistī; gēnus, gēneris.

EXCEPTIONS. 1. bōs, lār, mās, pār pēs, sāl, vās — also arbōs — have a long vowel in the nominative, though the stem-vowel is short (cf. genitive bōvis, etc.).

2. Nouns in -or, genitive -ōris, have the vowel shortened before the final r: as, honōr. (But this shortening is comparatively late, so that in Plautus and inscriptions these nominatives are often found long.)

3. Many verb-forms with vowel originally long shorten it before final -r or -t: as, amōr, dīcerēr, amēt (compare amēmus), dīcerēt, audīt, fīt.

NOTE. — The final syllable in -t of the perfect seems to have been originally long, but to have been shortened under this rule.

4. A few long stem-syllables are shortened, apparently under the influence of accent: as, ācer, ācerbus. So dō-lērō and pō-lērō, weakened from lūrō.

b. Forms from the same ROOT often show inherited variations of quantity (see § 10): as, dīcō (cf. maledīcus), dūcō (dūcis), fīdō (perfīdus), vōcis (vōcō), lēgis (lēgō).

c. COMPOUNDS retain the quantity of the words which compose them: as, oo-cīdō (cīdō), oo-cīqō (caedō), in-īquus (aequus).

d. Greek words compounded with πρό have o short: as, prōphēta, prōlōgus. Some Latin compounds of prō have o short: as, prōdīcor, prōfiteor. Compounds with nō vary: as, nōtās, nōgō, nōquō, nōquis, nōquam.

CHAPTER II.—*Rhythm.*

NOTE.—The essence of Rhythm in poetry is the regular recurrence of syllables pronounced with more stress than those intervening. To produce this effect in its perfection, precisely equal times should occur between the recurrences of the stress. But, in the application of rhythm to words, the exactness of these intervals is sacrificed somewhat to the necessary length of the words; and, on the other hand, the words are forced somewhat in their pronunciation, to produce more nearly the proper intervals of time. In different languages these adaptations take place in different degrees; one language disregarding more the intervals of time, another the pronunciation of the words.

The Greek language early developed a very strict rhythmical form of poetry, in which the intervals of time were all-important. The earliest Latin, on the other hand,—as in the Saturnian and Fescennine verse,—was not so restricted. But the purely metrical forms were afterwards adopted from the Greek, and supplanted the native forms of verse. Thus the Latin poetry with which we have to do follows for the most part Greek rules, which require the formal division of words (like music) into measures of equal times, technically called Feet. The strict rhythm was doubtless more closely followed in poetry that was *sung* than in that which was *declaimed* or *intoned*. In neither language, however, is the time perfectly preserved, even in single measures; and there are some cases in which the regularity of the time between the ictuses is disturbed.

The Greeks and Romans distinguished syllables of two kinds in regard to the time required for their pronunciation, a *long* syllable having twice the metrical value of a *short* one. But it must not be supposed that all long syllables were of equal length, or even that in a given passage each long had just twice the length of the contiguous shorts. The ratio was only approximate at best, though necessarily more exact in singing than in recitation. Nor are longs and shorts the only forms of syllables that are found. In some cases a long syllable was protracted, so as to have the time of three or even of four shorts, and often one long or two shorts were pronounced in less than their proper time, though doubtless always distinguishable in time from one short (see § 355. c, d). Sometimes a syllable naturally short seems to have been slightly prolonged, so as to represent a long, though in most (not all) cases the apparent irregularity can be otherwise explained. In a few cases, also, a pause takes the place of one or more syllables to fill out the required length of the measure. This could, of course, take place only at the end of a word: hence the importance of *Cæsura* and *Diæresis* in prosody (see § 358).

1. Measures.

355. Rhythm consists of the division of musical sound into MEASURES OF FEET.

The most natural division of musical time is into measures consisting of either two or three equal parts. But the ancients also distinguished measures of five equal parts.

REMARK.—The divisions of musical time are marked by a stress of voice on one or the other part of the measure. This stress is called the *ictus* (*beat*), or metrical accent (see § 358).

a. The unit of length in Prosody is *one short syllable*. This is called a *MORA*. It is represented by the sign \cup , or in musical notation by the *quaver* (♩).

b. A long syllable is regularly equal to two *mora*, and is represented by the sign $_$, or by the *crotchet* (♪).

c. A long syllable may be *protracted*, so as to occupy the time of three or four *mora*. Such a syllable, if equal to three *mora*, is represented by the sign $_$ (or $\text{♩} \cdot$); if equal to four, by $_$ (or $\text{♩} \cdot$).

d. A long syllable may be *contracted*, so as to take practically the time of a short one. Such a syllable is sometimes represented by the sign $>$.

e. A short syllable may be contracted so as to occupy less than one *mora*.

f. A pause sometimes occurs at the end of a verse or a series of verses, to fill up the time. A pause of one *mora* in a measure is indicated by the sign \wedge ; one of two *mora* by the sign Λ .

g. One or more syllables are sometimes placed before the proper beginning of the measure. Such syllables are called an *ANACRUSIS* or *prelude*.¹

The anacrusis is regularly equal to the unaccented part of the measure.

356. The measures most frequently employed in Latin verse, together with their musical notation, are the following:—

a. TRIPLE OR UNEQUAL MEASURES (♩).²

1. TROCHEE ($\angle \cup = \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *rēgīs*.

2. IAMBUS ($\cup \angle = \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *dūctūs*.

3. TRIBRACH³ ($\cup \cup \cup = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *hōmīnīs*.

¹ The same thing occurs in modern poetry, and in modern music any unaccented syllables at the beginning are treated as an anacrusis, *i.e.* they make an incomplete measure before the first bar. This was not the case in ancient music. The ancients seem to have treated any unaccented syllable at the beginning as belonging to the following accented ones, so as to make with them a foot or measure. Thus it would seem that the original form of Indo-European poetry was iambic in its structure, or at least accented the second syllable rather than the first.

² Called *diplasis*, the two parts (Thesis and Arsis) being in the ratio of 2 to 1.

³ Not found as a fundamental foot, but only as the resolution of a Trochee or Iambus.

b. DOUBLE OR EQUAL MEASURES (§).

1. DACTYL ($\angle \cup \cup = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *cōnsūlēs*.2. ANAPÆST ($\cup \cup \angle = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *mōntiōs*.3. SPONDEE ($\angle _ = \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *rēgēs*.

c. SIX-TIMED MEASURES (§).

1. IONIC *ā māiore* ($_ _ \cup \cup = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *cōnfēcērūt*.2. IONIC *ā minōre* ($\cup \cup _ _ = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *rētūlissēt*.3. CHORIAMBUS ($_ \cup \cup _ = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *cōntūlērant*.d. QUINARY OR HEMIOIC¹ MEASURES (§).1. CRETIC ($_ \cup _ = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *cōnsūlēs*.2. PÆON *primus* ($_ \cup \cup \cup = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *cōnsūlibūs*.3. PÆON *quārtus* ($\cup \cup \cup _ = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *itīnērē*.4. BACCHIUS ($\cup _ _ = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$): as, *amicōs*.

e. Several compound measures are mentioned by the grammarians, viz., *Antibacchius* ($_ _ \cup$), *Proceleusmatic* ($\cup \cup \cup \cup$), the 2d and 3d *Pæon*, having a long syllable in the 2d and 3d places, with three short ones; 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th *Epitritus*, having a short syllable in the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th places, with three long ones. None of them, however, are needed to explain rhythmically all the forms of ancient verse.

f. Feet with these apparent quantities do not always occupy the same time in the measure, but may be contracted or prolonged to suit the series in which they occur. They are then called *irrational*, because the thesis and arsis do not have integral ratios. Such are:—

IRRATIONAL SPONDEE: $_ > = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$.CYCLIC DACTYL: $_ \cup \cup = \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$ (or nearly $\text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩} \text{♩}$).

¹ Called *hemioic*, the two parts being in the ratio of 1 to 1½, or of 3 to 2.

CYCLIC ANAPÆST: = the same reversed.

IRRATIONAL TROCHÉE: $\text{—} > = \text{♪ ♪}$.

NOTE.—Of feet and combinations of feet (sometimes extending to an entire verse, and controlled by a single leading accent), the following are recognised, assuming $\frac{1}{2}$ to be the unit of musical time:—

$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{4}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{6}{8}$	$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{10}{8}$	$\frac{12}{8}$	$\frac{15}{8}$	$\frac{16}{8}$	$\frac{18}{8}$	$\frac{20}{8}$	$\frac{25}{8}$
$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{4}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{6}{8}$	$\frac{9}{8}$	$\frac{10}{8}$	$\frac{12}{8}$	$\frac{15}{8}$	$\frac{16}{8}$	$\frac{18}{8}$	$\frac{20}{8}$	$\frac{25}{8}$

Narrative poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, or Chant, with instrumental accompaniment; and Lyrical poetry for rhythmical melody, or singing. It must be borne in mind that in ancient music—which in this differs widely from modern—the rhythm of the melody was identical with the rhythm of the text. The lyric poetry was to be sung; the poet was musician and composer, as well as author. To this day a poet is said conventionally to “sing.”

Thus a correct understanding of the rhythmical structure of the Verse gives us the exact *time*, though not the *tune*, to which it was actually sung. The exact time, however, as indicated by the succession of long and short syllables, was varied according to certain laws of so-called “Rhythmic,” as will be explained below. In reading ancient verse it is necessary to bear in mind not only the variations in the relative length of syllables, but the occasional pause necessary to fill out the measure; and to remember that the rhythmical accent is the only one of importance, though the words should be distinguished carefully, and the sense preserved. Do not *scan*, but read metrically.

357. In many cases measures of the same time may be substituted for each other, a long syllable taking the place of two short ones, or two short ones the place of one long one.

In the former case the measure is said to be *contracted*; in the latter, to be *resolved*. Thus:—

a. A Spondee (— —) may take the place of a dactyl ($\text{— } \cup \cup$) or an anapest ($\cup \cup \text{—}$); and a Tribrach ($\cup \cup \cup$) may take the place of a Trochee ($\text{— } \cup$) or an Iambus ($\cup \text{—}$). The optional substitution of one long syllable for two short ones is represented by the sign $\text{—} \cup$.

b. Another form of dactyl when substituted for a trochee is represented thus, $\text{—} \text{—} \cup$.

A spondee, similarly substituted for a trochee, is represented thus, $\text{—} >$.

c. When a long syllable having the Ictus (§ 358. *a*) is resolved, the ictus properly belongs to both the resulting short syllables; but for convenience the mark of accent is placed on the first: as, —

nūc expēriar | sītnr ācētō | tibi cōr ācrē in | pēctore. — *Bacch.* 405.

2. The Musical Accent.

358. That part of the measure which receives the *stress of voice* (the musical accent) is called the **THESIS**; the unaccented part is called the **ARSIS**.¹

a. The stress of voice laid upon the Thesis is called the **ICTUS** (*beat*). It is marked thus: $\angle \cup \cup$.

b. The ending of a word within a measure is called **CÆSŪRA**. When this coincides with a rhetorical pause, it is called *the Cæsure* of the verse, and is of main importance as affecting the melody or rhythm.

c. The coincidence of the end of a word with that of a measure in Prosody is called **DIÆRESIS**.

¹ The Thesis signifies properly, the *putting down* (*thesis*, from *τίθημι*) of the foot in beating time, in the march or dance ("downward beat"), and the Arsis, the *raising* (*arsis*, from *ἀίρω*) of the foot ("upward beat"). By the Latin grammarians these terms were made to mean, respectively, the ending and beginning of a measure. By a misunderstanding which has prevailed till recently, since the time of Bentley, their true signification has been reversed. They will here be used in accordance with their ancient meaning, as has now become more common. This metrical accent, recurring at regular intervals of time, is what constitutes the *essence* of the rhythm of poetry as distinguished from prose, and should be constantly kept in mind.

The error mentioned arose from applying to trochaic and dactylic verse a definition which was true only of iambic or anapaestic.

CHAPTER III.—Versification.

1. The Verse.

339. A single line of poetry — that is, a series of measures set in a recognized order — is called a VERSE.¹

NOTE.—Most of the common verses originally consisted of two series (*hemisticks*), but the joint between them is often obscured. It is marked in Iambic verse by the *Diæresis*, in Dactylic Hexameter by the *Cæsura*.

a. A verse lacking a syllable at the end is called CATALECTIC, that is, having a pause to fill the measure; when the end syllable is not lacking, the verse is called ACATALECTIC, and has no such pause.

b. To divide the verse into its appropriate measures, according to the rules of quantity and versification, is called *scanning* or *scansion* (*scānsiō*, from *scandō*, a *climbing* or advance by steps).

REMARK.—In *reading* verse rhythmically, care should be taken to preserve the measure or time of the syllables, but at the same time not to destroy or confuse the words themselves, as is often done in *scanning*.

c. In scanning, a vowel or diphthong at the end of a word (unless an interjection) is partially suppressed when the next word begins with a vowel or with *h*. This is called ELISION (*bruising*).²

In reading it is usual entirely to suppress elided syllables. Strictly, however, they should be sounded lightly.

REMARK.—Elision is sometimes called by the Greek name *Synalœpha* (*smearing*).

Rarely a syllable is elided at the end of a verse when the next verse begins with a vowel. this is called *Synapheia* (*binding*).

¹ The word Verse (*versus*) signifies a *turning back*, i.e. to begin again in like manner, as opposed to Prose (*prœversus* or *prœversus*), which means *straight ahead*.

² The practice of Elision is followed in Italian and French poetry, and is sometimes adopted in English, particularly in the older poets: as,—

T inveigle and invite th' unwary sense. — *Comus*, 538.

In early Latin poetry a final syllable ending in *s* often loses this letter even before a consonant (cf. § 13. *b*): as,—

scniō cōfectur' quiescit. — *Ennius* (C. M. 14).

d. A final -m, with the preceding vowel, is suppressed in like manner when the next word begins with a vowel or h:¹ this is called *ECTHLIPSIS* (*squeezing out*): as, —

mōnstrum horrendum, informē, ingēns, cui lūmen ademptum.

— *Æn.* iii. 658.

Final -m has a feeble nasal sound, so that its partial suppression before the initial vowel of the following word was easy.

REMARK.—The monosyllables dō, dem, spē, spem, sim, stō, stem, qui (plural) are never elided; nor is an iambic word elided in dactylic verse. Elision is often evaded by skilful collocation of words.

e. Elision is sometimes omitted when a word ending in a vowel has a special emphasis, or is succeeded by a pause. This omission is called *HIATUS* (*gaping*).

The final vowel is sometimes shortened in such cases.

f. A final syllable, regularly short, is sometimes lengthened before a pause:² it is then said to be long by *Diastolē*: as, —

nostrorum obruimur, — oriturque miserrima caedēs.

g. The last syllable of any verse may be indifferently long or short (*syllaba anceps*).

FORMS OF VERSE.

360. A verse receives its name from its dominant or fundamental measure: as, *Dactylic*, *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapaestic*; and from the number of measures (single or double) which it contains: as, *Hexameter*, *Tetrameter*, *Trimeter*, *Dimeter*.

REMARK.—Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapaestic verses are measured not by single feet, but by pairs (*dipodia*), so that six Iambi make a *Trimeter*.

361. A Stanza, or Strophe, consists of a definite number of verses ranged in a fixed order.

Many stanzas are named after some eminent poet: as, *Sapphic* (from Sappho), *Alcaic* (from Alcæus), *Archilochian* (from Archilochus), *Horatian* (from Horace), and so on.

1. Dactylic Hexameter.

362. The Dactylic Hexameter, or *Heroic Verse*, consists theoretically of six dactyls. It may be represented thus:—

¹ Hence a final syllable in -m is said to have no quantity of its own—its vowel, in any case, being either elided or else made long by Position.

² This usage is comparatively rare, most cases where it appears to be found being caused by the retention of an originally long quantity

200|200|200|200|200|20

or in musical notation as follows:—



a. For any one of the feet, except the fifth, a spondee may be substituted, and must be for the last.

Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth place; the verse is then called *spondaic*. Thus in Ecl. iv. 49 the verse ends with *increscentum*.

NOTE.—In reality the last foot is a trochee standing for a dactyl, but the final syllable is not measured, and the foot is usually said to be a spondee.

b. The hexameter has always one *principal cæura*—sometimes two—almost always accompanied by a pause in the sense.

The principal cæura is usually *after the thesis* (less commonly *in the arsis*) of the third foot, dividing the verse into two parts in sense and rhythm.

It may also be *after the thesis* (less commonly *in the arsis*) of the fourth foot. In this case there is often another cæura in the second foot, so that the verse is divided into three parts: as,—

partē fē | rōx || ar | densque ōcū | lis || et | sibīlā | collā. — *Æn.* v. 277.

REMARK.—Often the only indication of the *principal* among a number of cæuras is the break in the sense.

A cæura occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A cæura occurring after the second syllable of a foot is called *feminine* (as in the fifth foot of the 3d and 4th verses in c). A cæura may also be found in any foot of the verse, but a proper *cæural pause* could hardly occur in the first or sixth.

When the fourth foot ends a word, the break (properly a *dixeresis*) is sometimes improperly called *bucolic cæura*, from its frequency in pastoral poetry.

c. The introductory verses of the *Æneid*, divided according to the foregoing rules, will appear as follows. The principal cæura in each verse is marked by double lines:—

Armā vī|rumque cā|nō || Trō|īae qui | primū ab | ōris
Itālī|am fā|tō prōfū|gus || Lā|vinīaque | vēnit
litōrā, | multū ille | et ter|rīs || iac|tātus ēt | altō
vī supē|rūm sac|vac || mēmō|rem lū|nōnis ōb | irām;
multā quō|que et bel|lō pas|sus || dum | condēret | urbēm,
infer|retque dē|ōs Lātī|ō, || gēnūs | undē Lā|tinum,
Albā|nique pā|trēs, || at|que altæ | moeniā | Rōmæ.

The *feminine cæura* is seen in the following:—

Dis gēnī|tū pōtū|ērē: || tē|nent mēdī|e omniā | silvæ. — *Æn.* vi. 131.

NOTE.—The Hexameter is thus illustrated in English verse:—

“Over the sea, past Crete, on the Syrian shores to the southward,
Dwells in the well-tilled lowland a dark-haired Æthiop people,
Skilful with needle and loom, and the arts of the dyer and carver,
Skilful, but feeble of heart; for they know not the lords of Olympus,

Lovers of man; neither broad-browed Zeus, nor Pallas Athéné,
Teacher of wisdom to heroes, bestower of might in the battle;
Share not the cunning of Hermes, nor list to the songs of Apollo,
Fearing the stars of the sky, and the roll of the blue salt water."

— *Kingsley's Andromeda*

2. Elegiac Stanza.

363. The Elegiac Stanza consists of two lines, — an hexameter followed by a pentameter.¹

The Pentameter verse is the same as the hexameter, except that it omits the last half of the third foot and of the sixth foot. Thus, —

— ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ || — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — ∞

♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ || ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ | ♩

a. The Pentameter verse is thus to be scanned as *two half-verses*, the second of which always consists of two dactyls followed by a single syllable.

b. The Pentameter has no regular Cæsura; but the first half-verse must always end with a word, which is followed by a pause to complete the measure.²

c. The following verses will illustrate the forms of the Elegiac Stanza: —

cum súbít | illi|us trís|tissímā | noctís í|māgō
quā mihí | supré|mum ∞ || tempūs in | urbē fū|it,
cum répē|tō noc|tem quā | tot mihí | cārā rē|liqui,
lābítur | ex ōcū|lis ∞ || nunc quōquē | guttā mē|is.
iam prōpē | lūx ādē|rat quā | mē dis|cēdērē|Caesar
finibūs | extrē|mac ∞ || iussērāt | Ausōnī|ae.

— OVID, *Trist.* i. 3.

NOTE. — The Elegiac Stanza differs widely in character from hexameter verse (of which it is a mere modification) by its division into Distichs, each of which must have its own sense complete. It is employed in a great variety of compositions, — epistolary, amatory, and mournful, — and was especially a favorite of the poet Ovid. It has been illustrated in English verse, imitated from the German: —

"In the Hex|ameter | rises the | fountain's | silvery | column;
In the Pen|tameter | aye || falling in | melody | back."

¹ Called *pentameter* by the old grammarians, who divided it, formally, into five feet (two dactyls or spondees, a spondee, and two anapaests), as follows: —

|| — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — || — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — ||

² The *time* of this pause, however, may be filled by the *protraction* of the preceding syllable, thus: —

— ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — || — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞ | — ∞ ∞

3. Other Dactylic Verses.

364. Other dactylic verses or half-verses are occasionally used by the lyric poets. Thus:—

a. The Dactylic Tetrameter alternates with the hexameter, forming the *Alcmanian Strophe*, as follows:—

Ō for|tēs pē|tōrāquē | passī,
mēcum | saepē vī|ri || nunc | vinō | pellitē | cūras;
crās in|gēns itē|rābimūs | acquor.

—HOR. *Od.* i. 7 (so 28; *Ep.* 12).

NOTE.—This verse is a single *meas.*, its time being represented by $\frac{1}{2}$ (§ 356 f. note).

b. The Dactylic Penthemim (five half-feet) consists of half a pentameter verse. It is used in combination with the Hexameter to form the *First Archilochian Strophe*: as,—

diffū|gērē nī|vēs || rēdē|unt iam | grāmīnā | campis,
arbōri|busquē cō|mae;
mūtāt | terrā vī|cēs || et | decrēs|centiā | ripās
flūmīnā | practērē|unt. — HOR. *Od.* iv. 7.

[For the Fourth Archilochian Strophe (Archilochian Heptameter, alternating with iambic trimeter catalectic), see § 372. 11.]

4. Iambic Trimeter.

365. The Iambic Trimeter is the ordinary verse of dramatic dialogue. It consists of three measures, each containing a double iambus (*iambic dipody*). Thus,—

× — ○ — | × — ○ — | × — ○ —

It is seen in the following:—

iam iam efficā|ci dō mātūs | scientiæ
supplex ēt ō|rō rēgnā per | Prōsērpinae,
pēr et Dia|nae nōn mōven|dā nūmina,
pēr atquē li|brōs carminum | valentium
dēfixā cælo dēvōcā|rē sidēra,
Cānidia par|cē vōcibus | tandem sacris,
citumquē re|trō retrō sol|vē turbīnem. — HOR. *Epod.* 17.

The last two lines may be thus translated, to show the movement in English:—

“Oh! stay, Canidia, stay thy rights of sorcery,
Thy charm unbinding backward let thy swift wheel fly!”

a. The Iambic Trimeter is often used in lyric poetry, alternating with the Dimeter to form the *Iambic Strophe*, as follows:—

bēātūs a||m̄ qui prōcul | nēgōtīs,
 ūt priscā gēns | mortālūm,
 pāternā rū|rā būbūs ex|ercet sūis,
 sōlūtūs om|ni fēndrē;
 nēqu^e excitā|tur clāssicō | miles trūci,
 nēqu^e horrēt i|rātum mārē. — HOR. *Epid.* 2.

b. In the Iambic Trimeter an irrational spondee (> —) or its equivalent (a cyclic anapaest ∪ ∪ — or an apparent dactyl > ∪ ∪ (§ 356. f)) may be regularly substituted for the first iambus of any dipody. A Tribrach (∪ ∪ ∪) may stand for an iambus anywhere except in the last place.

In the comic poets any of these substitutions may be made in any foot except the last: as, —

Ō lūcis a|m̄ rēctōr || et | caeli dēcūs!
 quⁱ alternā cur|rū spātiā || flam|mis^{us} ambiēns,
 illūstrē lae|tis || exsēris | terris cāpūt.

— SENECA, *Herc. Fur.* 592-94.

quid quaerīs? an|nōs || sēxāgin|tā nātūs es.

— TERENCE, *Heaut.* 62.

hōmō s^{um}: hūmā|ni || nēhīl ā m^e ālī|enām pūtō.
 vel mē monē|re hōc || vėl percon|tārē pūtā.

— *Heaut.* 77, 78.

c. The CHOLIAMBIC (*lame Iambic*) substitutes a trochee for the last iambus: as, —

|| ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — | — ^ ||
 aequ^e est bēātus ac pōē|mā cūm scribit:
 tam gaudēt in | sē, tūmq^{ue} s^{us} ip|sē mirātur.

— CATULL. xxii. 15, 16.

d. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic is represented as follows: —

|| ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ ||

It is used in combination with other measures (see § 372. 11), and is shown in the following: —

Vulcānūs ār|dēns urīt of|ficinās. — HOR. *Od.* l. 4.

or in English: —

“On purple peaks a deeper shade descending.” — *Scott*.

NOTE. — The Iambic Trimeter may be regarded, metrically, as “a single foot” (its time being represented by ½), consisting of three dipodies, and having its principal accent, probably, on the second syllable of the verse, though this is a matter of dispute. The spondee in this verse, being a substitute for an iambus, is *irrational*, and must be shortened to fit the measure of the iambus (represented by > —).

5. Other Iambic Measures.

366. Other forms of Iambic verse are the following:—

a. The Iambic TETRAMETER Catalectic (*Septenarius*). This consists of seven iambic feet, with the same substitutions as in iambic Trimeter. It is used in lively dialogue: as,—

non idcirco arces|sor, nuptiās | quod mi|hi dāpārā|rī sēnāt.
quibus quiddē|m quam faci|lū pōuērat | quiescē| sī hic | quiesset!
— TER. *Andria*, 690, 691.

The rhythm of the Iambic Septenarius may be thus represented according to our musical notation (see p. 403, foot-note 1):—

|| ♩ : ♪ _ _ ♪ | ♪ _ _ ♪ | ♪ _ _ ♪ | ♪ _ _ ♪ |
♩ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ | ♪ ♪ ♪ ♪ |

Its movement is like the following:—

"In good king Charles's golden days, when loyalty no harm meant," etc.
— *Vicar of Bray*.

b. The Iambic Tetrameter Acatalectic (*Octonarius*). This consists of eight full iambic feet with the same substitutions as in Iambic Trimeter. It is also used in lively dialogue: as.—

hōcīnēst hūmā|nūm faci# aut in|cept#? hōcīnēst of|ficiūm patrīs?
quid illū|d est? prō | dēūm fidem, | quid est, sī hōc nōn con|tūmēliast?
— *Andria*, 236, 237.

c. The Iambic DIMETER. This may be either acatalectic or catalectic.

1. The Iambic Dimeter Acatalectic consists of four iambic feet. It is used in combination with some longer verse (see § 365. a).

2. The Iambic Dimeter Catalectic consists of three and a half iambic feet. It is used only in choruses: as,—

quonām cruen|tā Maenās,
præcēps amō|rē saevū,
rāpītūr quōd im|pōtētū
facinūs pārat | furōrē? — SEN. *Medea*, 850-853.

6. Trochaic Verse.

367. The most common form of Trochaic verse is the Tetrameter catalectic (*Septenarius*), consisting of four dipodies, the last of which lacks a syllable. It is represented metrically thus,—

⏏ ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ > | ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ > | ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ > | ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ ⏏ > |

or in musical notation,

$\frac{6}{8}$ ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩ | ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩ |

ad tē adveniō, spēm, salūtem, || cōsiliūm auxiliūm expetēns.

— TER. Andr. ii. 18.

In English verse:—

“Tell me not in mournful numbers life is but an empty dream.”

— Longfellow.

a. The spondee and its resolutions can be substituted only in the even places; except in comic poetry, which allows the substitution in any foot but the last: as, —

fidem habet peta|sum ac vestitum: | tam cōsimilist | atque ego.

sūra, pēs, sta|tūra, tōnsus, | oculi, nāsum, | vél labra,

mālac, mentum, | bárba, collus; | tōtus¹ quid ver|bīs opust?

sī tergum ci|cātricōsum, | nīhīl hōc similist | sīmilis.

— PLAUT. Amphitr. 443-446.

b. Some other forms of trochaic verse are found in the lyric poets, in combination with other feet, either as whole lines or parts of lines: as, —

nōn ebur ne|que adreum. [Dimeter Catalectic.]

meā reni|det in domō|la cūnar. [Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.]

— HOR. Od. ii. 18.

7. Mixed Measures.

NOTE. — Different measures may be combined in the same verse in two different ways. Either (1) a series of one kind is simply joined to a series of another kind (compare the changes of rhythm not uncommon in modern music); or (2) single feet of other measures are combined with the prevailing measures, in which case these odd feet are adapted by changing their quantity so that they become *irrational* (see § 356, Note).

When enough measures of one kind occur to form a series, we may suppose a change of rhythm; when they are isolated, we must suppose adaptation. Of the indefinite number of possible combinations but few are found in Latin poetry.

368. The following verses, combining different rhythmical series, are found in Latin lyrical poetry:—

1. GREATER ARCHILOCHIAN (Dactylic Tetrameter; Trochaic Tripody):—

|| — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ | — ∞ || — ∪ | — ∪ | — > ||

solvitur | acris hī|ems grā|tā vicē || vēris | et Fa|vōni. — HOR. Od. i. 4.

NOTE. — It is possible that the dactyls were cyclic; but the change of measure seems more probable.

2. Verse consisting of Dactylic Trimeter catalectic (*Dactylic Penthemimer*); Iambic Dimeter:—

|| — ∪ ∪ | — ∪ ∪ | — || ∪ — ∪ — | ∪ — ∪ — ||
scribēre | versicū | lōs || āmorē per | culsum iūvat. — *Id. Ep. II.*

3. Logædic Verse.

369. Trochaic verses containing in regular prescribed positions, irrational measures or irrational feet, are called LOGÆDIC. The principal logædic forms are:—

1. Logædic Tetrapody (*four feet*): GLYCONIC.
2. Logædic Tripody (*three feet*): PHERECRATIC.
3. Logædic Dipody (*two feet*): this may be regarded as a *short Pherecratic*.

NOTE. — Irrational measures are those in which the syllables do not correspond strictly to the normal ratio of length (see § 355). Such are the *Irrational Spondee* and the *Cyclic Dactyl*. This mixture of various ratios of length gives an effect approaching that of prose: hence the name Logædic (λόγος, λόγος). These measures originated in the Greek lyric poetry, and were adopted by the Romans. All the Roman lyric metres not belonging to the regular iambic, trochaic, dactylic, or Ionic systems, were constructed on the basis of the three forms given above: viz., Logædic systems consisting respectively of four, three, and two feet. The so-called Logædic *Pentapody* consists of five feet, but is to be regarded as composed of two of the others.

370. Each logædic form contains a single dactyl,¹ which may be either in the first, second, or third place. The verse may be catalectic or acatalectic. Thus,—

<i>Glyconic.</i>	<i>Pherecratic.</i>
i. — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — (∪)	— ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — (∪)
ii. — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — (∪)	— ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — (∪)
iii. — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — (∪)	— ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — ∪ ∪ — (∪)

NOTE. — The shorter Pherecratic (*dipody*), if catalectic, appears to be a simple Choriambic (— ∪ ∪ | — ∪); and, in general, the effect of the logædic forms is Choriambic. In fact, they were so regarded by the later Greek and Latin metrists, and these metres have obtained the general name of CHORIAMBIC. But they are not true choriambic, though they may very likely have been felt to be such by the composer, who imitated the forms without much thought of their origin. They may be read (scanned), therefore, on that principle. But it is better to read them as *logædic* measures; and that course is followed here, in accordance with the most approved opinion on the subject.

¹ Different Greek poets adopted fixed types in regard to the place of the dactyl, and so a large number of verses arose, each following a strict law, which were imitated by the Romans as distinct metres.

371. The verses constructed upon the several Logæædic forms or models are the following:—

1. GLYCONIC (*Second Glyconic*, catalectic):—

|| — ∪ | ~ ∪ | — ∪ | — || P P | P P | P P | P P | P P (or P. ~) |

Rōmæ | principis | urbi | um.

English:—

“Forms more real than living man.”—*Shelley*.

NOTE.—In this and most of the succeeding forms the first foot is always irrational in Horæ, consisting of an apparent spondee (— >).

2. ARISTOPHANIC (*First Pherecratic*):—

|| ~ ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ || P P | P P | P P | P P |

temperat | ōra | frēnis.—*Hor*.

NOTE.—It is very likely that this was made equal in time to the preceding by protracting the last two syllables: thus,—

|| ~ ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ || P P | P P | P P | P P |

3. ADONIC (*First Pherecratic*, shortened):—

|| ~ ∪ | — ∪ || P P | P P | P P |

Terrunt | urbem.—*Hor*.

Or perhaps:—

|| ~ ∪ | — ∪ || P P | P P | P P |

4. PHERECRATIC (*Second Pherecratic*):—

|| — ∪ | ~ ∪ | — ∪ || P P | P P | P P | P P |

crās dōnāberis hædō.—*Hor*.

5. LESSER ASCLEPIADIC (*Second and First Pherecratic*, both catalectic):—

|| — > | ~ ∪ | — ∪ || ~ ∪ | — ∪ | — ∪ ||

Maecēnās atavis édite rêgibus.—*Hor*.

6. GREATER ASCLEPIADIC (the same, with a *Logæædic Dipody* interposed):—

|| — > | ~ ∪ | — ∪ || ~ ∪ | — ∪ || ~ ∪ | — ∪ ||

tū nē quæsieris — scire nefās — quēm mihi quēm tibi.—*Hor*.

7. LESSER SAPPHIC (*Logæædic Pentapody*, with dactyl in the third place):—

|| — ∪ | — > | ~ ∪ | — ∪ || ~ ∪ ||

intēgr vitæ scelerisque pāra.—*Hor*.

Or, in English:—

"Brilliant hopes, all woven in gorgeous tresses."—*Longfellow*.

8. GREATER SAPPHIC (*Third Glyconic*; *First Pherecratic*):—

|| _ u | _ > | ~ u | _ u | ~ u | _ u | _ u | _ u ||

tē deū ōdō Sybaris || cūr properās amandō. — *Hor.*

9. LESSER ALCAIC (*Logædic Tetrapody*, two dactyls, two trochees):—

|| ~ u | ~ u | _ u | _ u ||

virginibūs puerisque cāntō. — *Hor.*

In English (nearly):—

"Blossom by blossom the Spring begins."—*Atalanta in Calydon*.

10. GREATER ALCAIC (*Logædic Pentapody*, catalectic, with Anacrusis, and dactyl in the third place, — compare *Lesser Sapphic*):—

|| _ u : _ u | _ > | ~ u | _ u | _ u ||

iustū ē tēnācem prōpositū virū. — *Hor.*

NOTE.—Only the above Logædic forms are employed by Horace.

11. PHALÆCIAN (*Logædic Pentapody*, with dactyl in the second place):—

|| _ > | ~ u | _ u | _ u | _ u | _ u ||

quāenam tē mala mēna, miselli Rāsidi,
āgit prācipitiū in mēdō iāmbō? — *Catull.* xl.

In English:—

"Gorgeous flowerets in the sunlight shining."—*Longfellow*.

12. GLYCONIC PHERECRATIC (*Metrum Satyricum*):—

|| _ u | ~ u | _ u | _ u || _ u | ~ u | _ u | _ u ||

Ō Colōnia quāc cupis || pōnte lādere lōgō. — *Catull.* xvii.

9. Metres of Horace.

372. The Odes of Horace include nineteen varieties of stanza; these are:—

1. ALCAIC, consisting of two Greater Alcaics (10), one Trochaic Dimeter with anacrusis, and one Lesser Alcaic (9)¹: as, —

iustū ē tēnācem prōpositū virū

nōn civiū ardor prāva iuventiām

nōn vultūs instantis tyrānni

mēnte quatit solidā nequē Aēstae. — *Od.* iii. 3.

(Found in *Od.* i. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; ii. 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; iii. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; iv. 4, 9, 14, 15.)

¹ The figures refer to the foregoing list (§ 371).

NOTE. — The Alcaic Strophe was a special favorite with Horace, of whose Odes thirty-seven are in this form. It is sometimes called the *Horatian Stanza*. The verses were formerly described as, 1. 2. spondee, bacchius, two dactyls; 3. spondee, bacchius, two trochees; 4. two dactyls, two trochees.

2. **SAPPHIC (minor)**, consisting of three Lesser Sapphics (7) and one Adonic (3): as, —

tām satfa terris nivis atque dīrae
grādinis misit pater ēt rubēte
dēxterā sacrās iaculātus arcēs
tērruit urbem. — *Od.* i. 2.

(Found in *Od.* i. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; ii. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; iii. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; iv. 2, 6, 11. *Carm. Sec.*)

NOTE. — The Sapphic Stanza is named after the poetess Sappho of Lesbos, and was a great favorite with the ancients. It is used by Horace in twenty-five Odes—more frequently than any other except the Alcaic. The *Lesser Sapphic* verse was formerly described as consisting of a Choriambus preceded by a trochaic dipod and followed by a bacchius.

3. **SAPPHIC (major)**, consisting of one Aristophanic (2) and one Greater Sapphic (8): as, —

Lýdia dīc, per omnēs
tē deōs orō, Sýbarin cūr properās amāndō. — *Od.* i. 8.

4. **ASCLEPIADEAN I. (minor)**, consisting of Lesser (5): as, —

ēxēgi monumētum aere perēnnitū
rēgalque sitū — pyramidum altitū. — *Od.* iii. 30.
(Found in *Od.* i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.)

5. **ASCLEPIADEAN II.**, consisting of one Glyconic (1) and one Lesser Asclepiadic (5): as, —

Nāvis quāē tibi crēditūm
dēbēs Virgillūm, — finibz Atticis
rēddās incolumēm, precor,
ēt servēs animāē — dimidiūm meāē. — *Od.* i. 3.

(Found in *Od.* i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. 1, 3.)

6. **ASCLEPIADEAN III.**, consisting of three Lesser Asclepiadics (5) and one Glyconic (1): as, —

Quis dēsideriō sit pudor aut modūs
tām carī capitis? — praēcipe līgubrēs
cāntūs, Mēlpomenē, — cui liquidūm patēr
vōcem cūm cytharā dedit. — *Od.* i. 24.

(Found in *Od.* i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.)

¹ See the Index below (pp. 420, 421).

7. ASCLEPIADEAN IV., consisting of two Lesser Asclepiadics (5), one Pherecratic (4), and one Glyconic (1): as, —

Ō fons Bāndusiæ splēndidiŏr vitŏ,
dāci digne merŏ, nŏn sine flŏribŭs,
crās dŏnāberis haēdŏ
cul frŏns tŭrgida cŏrnibŭs. — *Od.* iii. 13.

(Found in *Od.* i. 5, 14, 21, 23; ii. 7; iii. 7, 13; iv. 13.)

8. ASCLEPIADEAN V. (*major*), consisting of Greater Asclepiadics (6): as, —

tū nē quaēleris — scire nefās! — quē mīhi, quē tibi
flumē dī dederūt — Lēdconŏē — nēc Bābylŏniŏs
tētāris numerŏs. — *Od.* i. 11.

(Found in *Od.* i. 11, 18; iv. 10.)

9. ALCMANIAN, consisting of Dactylic Hexameter (§ 362) alternating with Tetrameter (§ 364. *a*). (*Od.* i. 7, 38; *Epod.* 12.)

10. ARCHILOCHIAN I., consisting of Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Trimeter Catalectic (*Dactylic Penthemim*, see § 364. *b*). (*Od.* iv. 7.)

11. ARCHILOCHIAN IV., consisting of a Greater Archilochian (*heptameter*, § 368. 1), followed by Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (§ 365. *d*). The stanza consists of two pairs of verses: as, —

sŏlvitur ācris hiēms grātā vice || Vēris ēt Favŏni,
trahūntque siccās māchināe carinās;
sic neque iām stabullis gaudēt pecua, || adt arātor igni,
nec prāta cānis ālbicant pruinis. — *Od.* i. 4.

12. Iambic Trimeter alone (see § 365). (*Ep.* 17.)

13. Iambic Strophe (see § 365. *a*). (*Ep.* 1-10.)

14. Dactylic Hexameter alternating with Iambic Dimeter: as, —

nŏx erat, ēt caelŏ fulgēbat lūna serēnŏ
intēr minŏra sīdera,
cūm tū, māgnŏrdm nūmēn laesūra debŏrum,
in vērba iūrābās mea. — *Epod.* 15. (So in *Ep.* 14.)

15. Dactylic Hexameter with Iambic Trimeter (§ 365); as, —

āltera iām teritŭr belīſa civīlibus aētās,
suis et ipſa Rŏma viribŭs ruit. — *Epod.* 16.

16. Verse of Four Lesser Ionics: as, —

miserārū est | neque amŏri | dare lūdum | neque dulci
malā vinŏ | laver aut ex | quimārī | metuentē. — *Od.* iii. 12.

17. Iambic Trimeter (§ 365); Dactylic Penthemim (§ 364. b); Iambic Dimeter: as, —

Pect' nihil mē sicut antea iuvat
scribere vérsiculōs — amōre perculsūm gravi. — *Epod.* 11.

18. Dactylic Hexameter; Iambic Dimeter; Dactylic Penthemim (§ 364. b): as, —

hórrida témpetās caelūm contráxit, et ímbrēs
nivēsque dēdūcānt Iovem: núnc mare, núnc silūae. . . .
— *Epod.* 13.

19. Trochaic Dimeter, Iambic Trimeter, each catalectic (see § 367. b).

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| 9. Vides ut alta: | 28. Te maris: 9. |
| 10. Mercuri facunde nepos: | 29. Icci beatis: 1. |
| 11. Tu ne quaesieris: 8. | 30. O Venus: 2. |
| 12. Quem virum: 2. | 31. Quid dedicatum: 1. |
| 13. Cum tu Lydia: 5. | 32. Poscimur: 2. |
| 14. O navis: 7. | 33. Albi ne doleas: 6. |
| 15. Pastor cum traheret: 6. | 34. Parcus deorum: 1. |
| 16. O matre pulcra: 1. | 35. O diva: 1. |
| 17. Velox amoenum: 1. | 36. Et thure: 5. |
| 18. Nullam Vare: 8. | 37. Nunc est bibendum: 1. |
| 19. Mater saeva: 5. | 38. Persicos odi: 2. |

LIB. II.

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Motum ex Metello: 1. | 11. Quid bellicosus: 1. |
| 2. Nullus argento: 2. | 12. Nolis longa: 6. |
| 3. Aequamemento: 1. | 13. Ille et nectasto: 1. |
| 4. Ne sit ancillae: 2. | 14. Eheu fugaces: 1. |
| 5. Nondum subacta: 1. | 15. Iam pauca: 1. |
| 6. Septimi Gades: 2. | 16. Otium divos: 1. |
| 7. O sacra mecum: 1. | 17. Cur me querelis: 1. |
| 8. Ulla si furis: 2. | 18. Non ebur: 19. |
| 9. Non semper imbres: 1. | 19. Bacchum in remotis: 1. |
| 10. Rectius vives: 2. | 20. Non usitata: 1. |

LIB. III.

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Odi profanum : 1. | 16. Inclusam Danaën : 6. |
| 2. Angustam amice : 1. | 17. Aeli vetusto : 1. |
| 3. Iustum et tenacem : 1. | 18. Faune nympharum : 2. |
| 4. Descende caelo : 1. | 19. Quantum distet : 5. |
| 5. Caelo ionantem : 1. | 20. Non vides : 2. |
| 6. Delicta malorum : 1. | 21. O nota mecum : 1. |
| 7. Quid fles : 7. | 22. Montium custos : 2. |
| 8. Martiis caelebs : 2. | 23. Caelo supinas : 1. |
| 9. Donec gratus : 5. | 24. Intactis opulentior : 5. |
| 10. Extremum Tanain : 6. | 25. Quo me Bacche : 5. |
| 11. Mercuri nam te : 2. | 26. Vixi puerilis : 1. |
| 12. Miserarum est : 16. | 27. Impios parvae : 2. |
| 13. O fons Bandusiae : 7. | 28. Festo quid : 5. |
| 14. Herculis ritu : 2. | 29. Tyrrhena regum : 1. |
| 15. Uxor pauperis : 5. | 30. Exegi monumentum : 4. |

LIB. IV.

- | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Intermissa Venus : 5. | 9. Ne forte credas : 1. |
| 2. Pindarum quisquis : 2. | 10. O crudelis adhuc : 8. |
| 3. Quem tu Melpomene : 5. | 11. Est mihi nonum : 2. |
| 4. Qualem ministrum : 1. | 12. Iam veris comites : 6. |
| 5. Divis orte bonus : 6. | 13. Audivere Ilyce : 7. |
| 6. Dive quem proles : 2. | 14. Qua cura patrum : 1. |
| 7. Diffugere nives : 10. | 15. Phœbea volentem : 1. |
| 8. Donarem pateras : 4. | <i>Charmen</i> <i>saeculære</i> : 2. |

EPODES.

- | | |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Ibis Liburnis : 13. | 10. Mala soluta : 13. |
| 2. Beatus ille : 13. | 11. Pecti nihil : 17. |
| 3. Parentis olim : 13. | 12. Quid tibi vis : 9. |
| 4. Lupis et agnis : 13. | 13. Morrida tempestas : 18. |
| 5. At O deorum : 13. | 14. Mollis inertia : 14. |
| 6. Quid immerentes : 13. | 15. Nox erat : 14. |
| 7. Quo quo scelesti : 13. | 16. Altera iam : 15. |
| 8. Rogare longo : 13. | 17. Iam iam efficaci : 12. |
| 9. Quando repostum : 13. | |

373. Other lyric poets use other combinations of the above-mentioned verses. Thus, —

a. Glyconics with one *Pherecratic* (both imperfect) : as, —

Diā|nae sūmūs | in fidē
pūel|læ et pūeri | intēgri:
Diā|nam, pūeri | intēgri
pūel|laequē cā|nā|mus. — CATULL. 34.

b. Sapphics, in a series of single lines, closing with an *Adonic* : as, —

An mā|gia di|ri trēmū|re | Mānēs
Hercū|læ? et vi|sum cānis | infē|rūrum

fūgīt | abrup|tis trēpī|dus cā|tēnis?
 fallī|mur: lae|tē vēnīt | ecce | vultū,
 quem tū|lit Poe|ās; hūmē|risquē | tēla
 gestāt | et nō|tās pōpū|lis pha|retrās
 Herculis | hērēs. — SEN. *Herc. Œt.* 1600-6.

c. *Sapphics* followed by *Glyconics*, of indefinite number (īd. *Herc. Fur.* 830-874, 875-894).

10. Miscellaneous.

374. Other measures occur in various styles of poetry: viz., —

a. **ANAPÆSTIC** verses of various lengths are found in dramatic poetry. The spondee, dactyl, or proceleusmatic may be substituted for the anapæst: as, —

hic hōmōst | omni^{um} hōmī|num prae|cipuōs
 vōlūptā|tībūs gau|disque an|tēpōtēns.
 itā com|mōdā quae | cūpī^{us} ē|vēniunt,
 quōd agō | sūbīt, ad|secū^{us} | sēquitūr:
 itā gau|diū sup|pēditat. — PLAUT. *Trin.* 1115-19.

b. **BACCHIAC** verses (five-timed) occur in the dramatic poets, — very rarely in Terence, more commonly in Plautus, — either in verses of two feet (Dimeter) or of four (Tetrameter). They are treated very freely, as are all measures in early Latin. The long syllables may be resolved, or the *molossus* (three longs) substituted: as, —

multās rēs | vīmit^{us} in | mēō cor|dē vorsō,
 mult^{us} in cō|gītandō | dōlōr^{us} in|dīpiscor
 ēgōmet mē | cōg^{it} et mā|cēr^{us} et dē|fātīgō;
 māgister | mīhⁱ exer|cītōr ānī|mūs nunc est.
 — PLAUT. *Trin.* 223-226.

c. **CRETIC** measures occur in the same manner as the Bacchiac, with the same substitutions. The last foot is usually incomplete: as, —

āmōr ānī|cus mīhī | nē fūās | unquam.
 his ēgō | dⁱ artībūs | grātīam | fāciō.
 nīl ēgō is|tōs mōrōr | faecōs | mōrēs. — īd. 267, 293, 297.

d. **SATURNIAN VERSE**. In early Latin is found a rude form of verse, not borrowed from the Greek like the others. The rhythm is Iambic Tetrameter (or Trochaic with Anacrusis), but the Arsis is often synopated, especially in the middle and at the end of the verse: as, —

dabūt | malūm | Metū| — | Nae|vī|ō po|ētae.

11. Early Prosody.

375. The prosody of the earlier poets differs in several respects from that of the later.¹

a. At the end of words *s* was only feebly sounded, so that it does not make *positio* with a following consonant, and is sometimes cut off before a vowel. This usage continued in all poets till Cicero's time (§ 347. e).

b. The last syllable of any word of two syllables may be made short if the first is short. (This effect remained in a few words like *putā*, *cavē*, *valē*, *vidē*; cf. § 348.) Thus, —

ābēst (*Cist.* ii. 1. 12); *āpūd tēst* (*Trin.* 196); *sōrōr dictast* (*Enn.* 157);
hōnās (*Stich.* 99); *dōmī dēaque* (*Pseud.* 37); *dōmī* (*Mil.* 194).

c. In the same way a long syllable may be shortened when preceded by a short monosyllable: as, —

Id ēst profectō (*Merc.* 372); *ērīt et tībī ēxoptātum* (*Mil.* 1011); *si quidēm hērcle* (*Asin.* 414); *quid ēst sī hōc* (*Andria*, 237).

d. In a few isolated words position is often disregarded.* Such are *ille*, *iste*, *inde*, *tūde*, *nēmpē*, *ēsse* (?). Thus, —

ēcquis his in aedibust (*Bacch.* 581).

e. In some cases the accent seems to shorten a syllable preceding it in a word of more than three syllables, as in *senēotūtī*, *Syrācūsae*.

f. At the beginning of a verse many syllables long by position stand for short ones: as, —

idnē tū (*Pseud.* 442); *ēstne cōnsimilis* (*Epid.* v. 1. 18).

g. The original long quantity of many final syllables is retained. Thus: —

1. Final *-a* of the first declension is often long: as, —

nē eplstulā quidēm illa sit in aedilibus (*Asin.* 762).

2. Final *-a* of the neuter plural is sometimes long (though there seems no etymological reason for it): as, —

nūnc et amicō | prōsperāb et | gēniō meō mul | tā bona faciam (*Pers.* 263).

¹ Before the Latin language was used in literature, it had become much changed by the loss of final consonants and the shortening of final syllables under the influence of accent (which was originally free in its position, but in Latin became limited to the penult and antepenult). This tendency was arrested by the study of grammar and by literature, but shows itself again in the Romance languages. In many cases this change was still in progress in the time of the early poets.

* Scholars are not yet agreed upon the principle or the extent of this irregularity.

3. The ending **-or** is retained long in nouns with long stem-vowel (original **r**-stems or original **a**-stems): **as**, —

módo quom dict^{us} in m^{us} ingerēbās ódium nōn uxōr eram (*Asin.* 927).

Ita m^{us} in pector^e átque corde, fácit amōr incéndium (*Merc.* 500).

átque quantō nōx fuisti longiōr hāc próximā (*Amph.* 548).

4. The termination **-es** (**-itis**) is sometimes retained long, as in **mīlēs**, **superstēs**.

5. All verb-endings in **-r**, **-s**, and **-t** may be retained long where the vowel is elsewhere long in inflection: **as**, —

régrediōr audísse mē (*Capt.* 1023); átque ut qui fueris et qui nunc (id.

248); mē nōmināt haec (*Epid.* iv. 1. 8); faciāt ut semper (*Poen.* ii.

42); infuscābāt, amābō (*Cretica*, *Cist.* i. 21); qui amēt (*Merc.* 1021);

ut fīt in bellō capitur alter filius (*Capt.* 25); tibi sit ad mē revísās

(*Truc.* ii. 4. 79).

6. The *hiatus* is allowed very freely, especially at a pause in the sense, or when there is a change of the speaker.¹

¹ The extent of this license is still a question among scholars; but in the present state of texts it must sometimes be allowed.

MISCELLANEOUS.

1. Reckoning of Time.

NOTE. — The Roman Year was designated, in earlier times, by the names of the Consuls; but was afterwards reckoned from the building of the City (*ab urbe conditâ, annis urbis conditæ*), the date of which was assigned by Varro to a period corresponding with B.C. 753. In order, therefore, to reduce Roman dates to those of the Christian era, *the year of the city is to be subtracted from 754*: e.g. A.U.C. 691 (the year of Cicero's consulship) = B.C. 63.

Before Cæsar's reform of the Calendar (B.C. 46), the Roman year consisted of 355 days: March, May, Quintilis (July), and October having each 31 days; February having 28, and each of the remainder 29. As this Calendar year was too short for the solar year, the Romans, in alternate years, at the discretion of the Pontifices, inserted a month of varying length (*mensis intercalarius*) after February 23, and omitted the rest of February. The "Julian year," by Cæsar's reformed Calendar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present. Every fourth year the 24th of February (*vi. kal. Mart.*) was counted twice, giving 29 days to that month: hence the year was called *Bissextilis*. The month Quintilis received the name *Julius* (July), in honor of Julius Cæsar; and Sextilis was called *Augustus* (August), in honor of his successor. The Julian year (see below) remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian Calendar (A.D. 1582), which omits leap-year three times in every four hundred years.

376. Dates, according to the Roman Calendar, are reckoned as follows:—

a. The *first* day of the month was called **Kalendæ** (*Calends*).

NOTE. — **Kalendæ** is derived from *calāre, to call*,—the Calends being the day on which the pontiffs publicly announced the New Moon in the *Comitia Calææ*, which they did, originally, from actual observation.

b. On the *fifteenth* day of March, May, July, and October, but the *thirteenth* of the other months, were the **Idūs** (*Ides*), the day of Full Moon.

c. On the *seventh* day of March, May, July, and October, but the *fifth* of the other months, were the **Nōnæ** (*Nones* or *ninths*).

d. From the three points thus determined, the days of the month were reckoned *backwards* as so many days before the *Nones*, the *Ides*, or the *Calends*. The point of departure was, by Roman custom, counted in the reckoning, the *second* day being *three* days before, etc. This gives the following rule for determining the date:—

If the given date be Calends, add *two* to the number of days in the month preceding, — if Nones or Ides, add *one* to that of the day on which they fall, — and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date: thus, —

viii. Kal. Feb. (33-8)=Jan. 25.
iv. Nön. Mär. (8-4)=Mar. 4.
iv. Id. Sept. (14-4)=Sept. 10.

For peculiar constructions in dates, see § 259. e.

e. The days of the Roman month by the Julian Calendar, as thus ascertained, are given in the following Table: —

<i>January.</i>	<i>February.</i>	<i>March.</i>	<i>April.</i>
1. KAL. IAN.	KAL. FEB.	KAL. MÄRTIÆ	KAL. APRILÆS
2. IV. Nön. Iän.	IV. Nön. Feb.	VI. Nön. Mär.	IV. Nön. Apr.
3. III. " "	III. " "	V. " "	III. " "
4. prid. " "	prid. " "	IV. " "	prid. " "
5. NÖN. IÄN.	NÖN. FEB.	III. " "	NÖN. APRILÆS
6. VIII. Id. Iän.	VIII. Id. Feb.	prid. " "	VIII. Id. Apr.
7. VII. " "	VII. " "	NÖN. MÄRTIÆ	VII. " "
8. VI. " "	VI. " "	VIII. Id. Mär.	VI. " "
9. V. " "	V. " "	VII. " "	V. " "
10. IV. " "	IV. " "	VI. " "	IV. " "
11. III. " "	III. " "	V. " "	III. " "
12. prid. " "	prid. " "	IV. " "	prid. " "
13. IDÜS IÄN.	IDÜS FEB.	III. " "	IDÜS APRILÆS
14. XIX. Kal. Feb.	XVI. Kal. Märtiæ	prid. " "	XVIII. Kal. Mär.
15. XVIII. " "	XV. " "	IDÜS MÄRTIÆ	XVII. " "
16. XVII. " "	XIV. " "	XVII. Kal. Aprilæ.	XVI. " "
17. XVI. " "	XIII. " "	XVI. " "	XV. " "
18. XV. " "	XII. " "	XV. " "	XIV. " "
19. XIV. " "	XI. " "	XIV. " "	XIII. " "
20. XIII. " "	X. " "	XIII. " "	XII. " "
21. XII. " "	IX. " "	XII. " "	XI. " "
22. XI. " "	VIII. " "	XI. " "	X. " "
23. X. " "	VII. " "	X. " "	IX. " "
24. IX. " "	VI. " "	IX. " "	VIII. " "
25. VIII. " "	V. " "	VIII. " "	VII. " "
26. VII. " "	IV. " "	VII. " "	VI. " "
27. VI. " "	III. " "	VI. " "	V. " "
28. V. " "	prid. " "	V. " "	IV. " "
29. IV. " "	[prid. Kal. Märt.	IV. " "	III. " "
30. III. " "	in leap-year, the	III. " "	prid. " "
31. prid. " "	vi. Kal. (24th) being	prid. " "	(So June, Sept.,
(So Aug., Dec.)	counted twice.]	(So May, July, Oct.)	Nov.)

NOTE. — Observe that a date before the Julian Reform (B.C. 46) is to be found not by the above table, but by taking the earlier reckoning of the number of days in the month.

2. Measures of Value, etc.

377. The money of the Romans was in early times wholly of copper. The unit was the *ās*, which was nominally a pound in weight, but actually somewhat less. It was divided into twelve *unciae* (*ounces*).

In the third century B.C. the *ās* was gradually reduced to one-half of its original value. In the same century silver coins were introduced, — the *Dēnārius* and the *Sēstertius*. The Denarius = 10 asses; the Sestertius = $2\frac{1}{2}$ asses.

378. The Sestertius was probably introduced at a time when the *ās* had been so far reduced that the value of the new coin ($2\frac{1}{2}$ asses) was equivalent to the original value of the *ās*. Hence, the Sestertius (usually abbreviated to *IIS* or *HS*) came to be used as the unit of value, and *nummus*, *coin*, often means simply *sēstertius*. As the reduction of the standard went on, the sestertius became equivalent to 4 asses. Gold was introduced later, the aureus being equal to 100 sesterces. The value of these coins is seen in the following table:—

$2\frac{1}{2}$ asses	= 1 sēstertius or nummus (<i>IIS</i>),	value nearly 5 cents.
10 asses or 4 sēstertii	= 1 dēnārius	" " 20 "
1000 sēstertii	= 1 sestertium	" " \$50.00.

NOTE.—The word *sēstertius* is a shortened form of *sēmīs-tertius*, the third one, a half. The abbreviation *IIS* or *HS* = *duo et sēmīs*, $2\frac{1}{2}$, two and a half.

379. The *Sēstertium* (probably originally the genitive plural of *sēstertius*) was a sum of money, not a coin; the word is inflected regularly as a neuter noun: thus, *tria sēstertia* = \$150.00.

When *sēstertium* is combined with a numeral adverb, *centēna milia*, *hundreds of thousands*, is to be understood: thus *decies sēstertium* (*decies HS*) = \$50,000.

In the statement of large sums *sēstertium* is often omitted: thus *sexagies* (Rosc. Am. 2) signifies, *sexagies [centēna milia] sēstertium* (6,000,000 sesterces) = \$300,000 (nearly).

380. In the statement of sums of money in cipher, a line above the number indicates thousands; lines above and at the sides also, hundred-thousands. Thus *HS. DC. = 600 sēstertii*; *HS. DC̄ = 600,000 sēstertii*, or 600 *sēstertia*, H.S. \overline{DC} = 60,000,000 *sēstertii*.

381. The Roman Measures of Length are the following:—

- 12 inches (*unciae*) = 1 Roman Foot (*pēs*: 11.65 English inches).
- $1\frac{1}{2}$ Feet = 1 Cubit (*cubitus*).— $2\frac{1}{2}$ Feet = 1 Degree or Step (*gradus*).
- 5 Feet = 1 Pace (*passus*).—1000 Paces (*mille passuum*) = 1 Mile.

The Roman mile was equal to 4850 English feet.

The *jugerum*, or unit of measure of land, was an area of 240 (Roman) feet long and 120 broad; a little less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of an English acre.

382. The Measures of Weight are —

12 unciæ (ounces) = one pound (*libra*, about $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. avoirdupois)

Fractional parts (weight or coin) are —

- | | | |
|---|--|---|
| 1. ($\frac{1}{2}$), <i>uncia</i> . | 5. ($\frac{1}{12}$), <i>quincunx</i> . | 9. ($\frac{1}{8}$), <i>dōdrāns</i> . |
| 2. ($\frac{1}{4}$), <i>sextāns</i> . | 6. ($\frac{1}{6}$), <i>sēmissis</i> . | 10. ($\frac{1}{4}$), <i>dextāns</i> . |
| 3. ($\frac{1}{3}$), <i>quadrāns</i> . | 7. ($\frac{1}{7}$), <i>septunx</i> . | 11. ($\frac{1}{3}$), <i>deunx</i> . |
| 4. ($\frac{1}{6}$), <i>triēns</i> . | 8. ($\frac{1}{8}$), <i>bēssis</i> . | 12. <i>ās</i> . |

The Talent (*talentum*) was a Greek weight (τάλαντον) = 60 *librae*.

383. The Measures of Capacity are —

12 cyathī = 1 *sextārius* (nearly a pint).

16 sextārii = 1 *modius* (peck).

6 sextārii = 1 *congius* (3 quarts, liquid measure).

8 congii = 1 *amphora* (6 gallons).

384. The following are some of the commonest abbreviations found in Latin inscriptions and sometimes in editions of the classic authors.

A., *abscissa*.

A. U., *anno urbis*.

A. U. C., *ab urbe conditā*.

C., *condemnō, comitiālis*.

cos., *cōnsul (cōsule)*.

com., *cōsulēs (cōsulibus)*.

D., *dīvus*.

D. D., *dōnō dedit*.

D. D. D., *dat, dicat, dedicat*.

des., *designātus*.

D. M., *dīs mānēs*.

eq. Rom., *equus Rōmānus*.

F., *filius, factus*.

Ictus., *iūriscōsultus*.

Id., *idūs*.

imp., *imperātor*.

I. O. M., *Iovi optimō mārīmō*.

K., *Kal., Kalendae*.

N., *nequē, nefastus*.

N. L., *nōn liquet*.

P. C., *patrēs cōscrip̄ti*.

pl., *plēbis*.

pont. max., *pontifex mārīmō*.

pop., *populus*.

P. R., *populus Rōmānus*.

pr., *praetor*.

proc., *prōcōsul*.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S., *quod bonum felix
faustumque sit*.

Quir., *Quirīlēs*.

resp., *rēspūblica, respondet*.

S., *salūtem, sacrum, senātus*.

S. C., *senātus cōsultum*.

S. D. P., *salūtem dicit plurimam*.

S. P. Q. R., *Senātus Populusque Rō-
mānus*.

S. V. B. E. E. V., *sī valēs bene est, ego
valeō*.

pl. tr., *tribūnus plēbis*.

* U. (U. R.), *uti rogāz*.

GLOSSARY

OF TERMS USED IN GRAMMAR, RHETORIC, AND PROSODY

NOTE.—Many of these terms are pedantic names given by early grammarians to forms of speech used naturally by writers who were not conscious that they were using figures at all—as, indeed, they were not. Thus when one says, "It gave me no little pleasure," he is unconsciously using *Litotes*: when he says, "John went up the street, James down," *Antithesis*; when he says, "High as the sky," *Hyperbole*. Many were given under a mistaken notion of the nature of the usage referred to. Thus *mēd* and *tēd* (§ 98. c) were supposed to owe their *d* to *Paragoge*, *stūmpel* its *p* to *Epenthesis*. Such a sentence as "See my coat, how well it fits!" was supposed to be an irregularity to be accounted for by *Prolepsis*.

Many of these, however, are convenient designations for phenomena which often occur; and most of them have a historic interest, of one kind or another.

385. I. GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

Anacoluthon: a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part broken or unfinished.

Anastrophe: inversion of the usual order of words.

Apodosis: the conclusion of a conditional sentence (see *Protasis*).

Archaism: an adoption of old or obsolete forms.

Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions (§ 208. b).

Barbarism: adoption of foreign or unauthorized forms.

Brachylogy: brevity of expression.

Crasis: contraction of two vowels into one (§ 10. c).

Ellipsis: omission of a word or words necessary to complete the sense (§ 177. note).

Enallage: substitution of one word or form for another.

Epenthesis: insertion of a letter or syllable (§ 11. c).

Hellenism: use of Greek forms or constructions.

Hendiadys (ἐν δια δύοιν): the use of two nouns, with a conjunction, instead of a single modified noun.

Hypallage: interchange of constructions.

Hysteron proteron: a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

This term was applied to cases where the natural sequence of events is violated in language because the later event is of more importance than the earlier and so comes first to the mind. This was supposed to be an artificial embellishment in Greek, and so was imitated in Latin. It is still found in artless narrative; cf. "Bred and Born in a Brier Bush" (Uncle Remus).

Glossary.

Metathesis: transposition of letters in a word (§ 11. d).

Paragoge: addition of a letter or letters to the end of a word.

Parenthesis: insertion of a phrase interrupting the construction.

Periphrasis: a roundabout way of expression (*circumlocution*).

Pleonasm: the use of needless words.

Polysyndeton: the use of an unnecessary number of copulative conjunctions.

Prolepsis: the use of a word in the clause preceding the one where it would naturally appear (*anticipation*).

Protasis: a clause introduced by a conditional expression (*if, when, whoever*), leading to a conclusion called the *Apodosis* (§ 304).

Syncope: omission of a letter or syllable from the middle of a word (§ 11. b).

Synesis (*constructio ad sensum*): agreement of words according to the sense, and not the grammatical form (§ 182).

Tmesis: the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words (*cutting*).

This term came from the earlier separation of prepositions (originally adverbs) from the verbs with which they were afterwards joined; so in *per ecastor scitus puer, a very fine boy, egad!* As this was supposed to be intentional, it was ignorantly imitated in Latin; as in *oere-communuit-brum* (Ennius).

Zeugma: the use of a verb with two different words, to only one of which it strictly applies (*yoking*).

386. II. RHETORICAL FIGURES.

Allegory: a narrative in which abstract ideas figure as circumstances, events, or persons, in order to enforce some moral truth.

Alliteration: the use of several words that begin with the same sound.

Analogy: argument from resemblances.

Anaphora: the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses (§ 344. f).

Antithesis: opposition, or contrast of parts (for emphasis: § 344).

Antonomasia: use of a proper for a common noun, or the reverse: as, —

sint Maecenatēs nōn deerant Flacce Marōnēs, so there be patrons (like Maecenas), poets (like Virgil) will not be lacking.

illa furia et pestis, that fury and plague (i.e. Clodius); Homēromastix, scourge of Homer (i.e. Zoilus).

Aposiopesis: an abrupt pause for rhetorical effect.

Catachresis: a harsh metaphor (*abuso*, misuse of words).

Chiasmus: a reversing of the order of words in corresponding pairs of phrases (§ 344. f).

- Climax*: a gradual increase of emphasis, or enlargement of meaning.
Euphemism: the mild expression of a painful or repulsive idea.
Euphony: the choice of words for their agreeable sound.
Hyperbaton: violation of the usual order of words.
Hyperbole: exaggeration for rhetorical effect.
Irony: the use of words which naturally convey a sense contrary to what is meant.
Litotes: the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary (§ 209. c).
Metaphor: the figurative use of words, indicating an object by some resemblance.
Metonymy: the use of the name of one thing to indicate some kindred thing.
Onomatopœia: a fitting of sound to sense in the use of words.
Oxymoron: the use of contradictory words in the same phrase: as, —
Insāniēns sapientia, foolish wisdom.
Paraleipsis (Praeteritio): artful emphasis by pretended omission.
Paronomasia: the use of words of like sound.
Prosopopœia: personification.
Synchysis: the interlocked order (§ 344. h).
Synecdoche: the use of the name of a part for the whole, or the reverse.

387. III. TERMS OF PROSODY.

- Acatalectic*: complete, as a verse or a series of feet (§ 359. a).
Anaclassis: breaking up of rhythm by substituting different measures.
Anacrusis: the unaccented syllable or syllables preceding a verse (§ 355. g).
Antistrophe: a series of verses corresponding to one which has gone before (cf. *strophe*).
Arsis: the unaccented part of a foot (§ 358).
Basis: a single foot preceding the regular movement of a verse.
Cæsura: the ending of a word within a metrical foot (§ 358. b).
Catalexis: loss of a final syllable (or syllables) making the series *catalectic* (incomplete, § 359. a).
Contraction: the use of one long syllable for two short (§ 357).
Correption: shortening of a long syllable, for metrical reasons.
Diaeresis: the coincidence of the end of a foot with the end of a word (§ 358. c).
Dialysis: the use of *i* (consonant) and *v* as vowels (*silua* = *silva* § 347. d. Rem.).
Diastole: the lengthening of a short syllable by emphasis (§ 359. f).

Dimeter: consisting of two like measures

Dipody: consisting of two like feet.

Distich: a system or series of two verses.

Ecthlipsis: the suppression of a final syllable in -m before a word beginning with a vowel (§ 359. d).

Elision: the cutting off of a final before a following initial vowel (§ 359. c).

Heptameter: consisting of seven feet.

Hexameter: consisting of six measures.

Hexapody: consisting of six feet.

Hiatus: the meeting of two vowels without contraction or elision (§ 359. e).

Ictus: the metrical accent (§ 358. a).

Irrational: not conforming strictly to the unit of time (§ 356. note).

Logædic: varying in rhythm, making the effect resemble prose (§ 369).

Monometer: consisting of a single measure.

Mora: the unit of time = one short syllable (§ 355. a).

Pentameter: consisting of five measures.

Pentapody: consisting of five feet.

Penthemimeris: consisting of five half-feet.

Protraction: extension of a syllable beyond its normal length (§ 355. c).

Resolution: the use of two short syllables for one long (§ 357).

Strophe: a series of verses making a recognized metrical whole (*stanza*), which may be indefinitely repeated.

Synæresis: i (vowel) and u becoming consonants before a vowel.

Synalæpha: the same as elision (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synapheia: elision between two verses (§ 359. c. Rem.).

Synizesis: the combining of two vowels in one syllable (§ 347. c).

Syncope: loss of a short vowel.

Systole: shortening of a syllable regularly long.

Tetrameter: consisting of four measures.

Tetrapody: consisting of four feet.

Tetrastich: a system of four verses.

Thesis: the accented part of a foot (§ 358).

Trimeter: consisting of three measures.

Tripody: consisting of three feet.

Tristich: a system of three verses.

APPENDIX.

LATIN was originally the language of the plain of Latium, lying south of the Tiber, the first territory occupied and governed by the Romans. This language, and, together with it, Greek, Sanskrit, Zend (Old Persian), the Slavonic and Teutonic families, and the Celtic, are shown by comparative philology to be offshoots of a common stock, a language once spoken by a people somewhere in the interior of Asia, whence the different branches, by successive migrations, passed into Europe and Southern Asia.

This Parent Speech is called the Indo-European, and the languages descended from it are known collectively as the Indo-European Family. By an extended comparison of the corresponding roots, stems, and forms, as they appear in the different languages of the family, the original Indo-European root, stem, or form can in very many cases be determined. A few of these forms are given in the grammar for comparison (see, especially, p. 83). Others are here added for further illustration:—

I. CASE FORMS (Stem VAK, *voice*).

	INDO-EUR.	SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.
SING. Nom.	vāks ¹	vāks	ῥῶς	vōx
Gen.	vakās	vāchās	ῥῶος	vōcis
Dat.	vakái	vāché	ῥῶι	vōci
Acc.	vākam	vācham	ῥῶα	vōcem
Abl.	vakát	vāchās	(gen. or dat.)	vōce(d)
Loc.	vakí	vāchí	(dat.)	(dat.)
Instr.	vakā	vāchá	(dat.)	(abl.)
PLUR. Nom.	vākas	vāchas	ῥῶες	vōcēs
Gen.	vakām	vāchām	ῥῶῶν	vōcum
Dat.	vakbhyaṃ	vāgbhyaṃ	ῥῶι	vōcibꝯs
Acc.	vākams	vāchās	ῥῶας	vōcēs
Abl.	vākbhyaṃ	(as dat.)	(gen. or dat.)	vōcibꝯs
Loc.	vaksvas	vāksí	(dat.)	(dat.)
Instr.	vakbhís	vāgbhís	(dat.)	(abl.)

¹ To avoid unsettled questions of Comparative Grammar, the stem-vowel is here given as *a*, though the vowel undoubtedly had approached *o* before the separation of the various Indo-European languages from the parent speech.

Appendix.

2. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

INDO-EUR.	SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.
1 ?	[eka]	[eîs]	[ūnus]
2 dva	dva	δύο	duo
3 tri	tri	τρεῖς	tres
4 kvatvar	chatur	τέτταρες	quattuor
5 kvankva	panchan	πέντε	quinque
6 ?	shash	ἕξ	sex
7 septm	saptan	ἑπτὰ	septem
8 aktam	ashtun	ὀκτώ	octō
9 navam	navan	ἐννέα	novem
10 dekṃ	dasan	δέκα	decem
12 dvadekṃ	dva-dasan	δωδεκα	duodecim
13 tridekṃ	trayo-dasan	τρισκαίδεκα	tredecim
20 dvidekṣta	vinsati	εἴκοσι	viginti
30 tridekṣta	trinsati	τριάκοντα	triginta
100 kṣtom	ṣatam	ἑκατόν	centum

3. FAMILIAR AND HOUSEHOLD WORDS.

	INDO-EUR.	SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.
<i>Father.</i>	pātar-	pitri-	πατήρ	pāter
<i>Mother.</i>	mātar-	mātri-	μήτηρ	māter
<i>Father-in-law.</i>	svakura-	ḥvaçura-	ἐκυρός	socer
<i>Daughter-in-law.</i>	snushā-	snusha-	νύος	nurus
<i>Brother.</i>	bhrātar-	blirātri-	φράτηρ ¹	frāter
<i>Sister.</i>	svasar- (?)	svasar-	[ἀδελφή]	soror
<i>Master.</i>	pati-	pati-	πόσις	potis
<i>House.</i>	dama-	dama-	δῶμος	domus
<i>Seat.</i>	sadas-	sadas-	ἔδος	sēdēs
<i>Year.</i>	vatas-	vatsa-	ἔτος	vetus (<i>old</i>)
<i>Field.</i>	agra-	ajra-	ἀγρός	ager
<i>Ox, Cow.</i>	gau-	go-	βοῦς	bōs
<i>Sheep (Ewe).</i>	avi-	avi-	ὄvis	ovis
<i>Swine (Sow).</i>	sū-	sū-	ὄς, σὺς	sūs
<i>Yoke.</i>	yuga-	yuga-	ἵγυον	iugum
<i>Wagon.</i>	rata-	rata-	[ἄμαξα]	rota (<i>wheel</i>)
<i>Middle.</i>	madhya-	madhya-	μέσος	medius
<i>Sweet.</i>	svādu-	svādu-	ἡδύς	suāvis

The emigrants who peopled the Italian peninsula also divided into several branches, and the language of each branch had its own development, until all the rest were crowded out by the dominant Latin. These dialects have left no literature, but fragments of some of them

have been preserved, in inscriptions, or as cited by Roman antiquarians; and other fragments were probably incorporated in that popular or rustic dialect which formed the basis of the modern Italian. The most important of these ancient languages of Italy were the Oscan of Campania, and the Umbrian of the northern districts. To these should be added the Etruscan, which is of uncertain origin. Some of their forms, as compared with the Latin, may be seen in the following:—

LATIN.	OSCAN.	UMBRIAN.	LATIN.	OSCAN.	UMBRIAN
accinere		arkane	neque	nep	
alteri (loc.)	alttrei		per	perum	
argentō	aragetud		portet		portaia
avibus		aveis	quadrupedibus		peturpursua
cēnsor	censtur		quattuor	p-tora	petur
cēnsor	consazet		quinque	pomtis	
contra F.	contrud, N.		qui, quis	pis	pis
cornicem		curnaco	quid	pid	
dextra		destru	quod	pod	pod
dicere	deicum (cf. vēnum-dō)		cui	pi <i>ai</i>	
dixerit	dicant		quom		ponc, pune
duodecim		desenduf	rectōri	regaturei	
extrā	ehtrad		siquis		svepis
facitō	factud		stet	stai ^l (stai ^{et})	
fēcerit	fefacust		subvocō		subocau
fertōte		fertuta	sum	sum	
frātribus		fratrus	est	i st	
ibi	ip		sit	set	
imperātor	embratur		fuert	fust	fust
inter	anter	anter	fuērant	fufans	
licetō	licitud		fuat	fuid	fuia
magistrō		mestru	tertium		tertim
medius		mefa	ubi	puf	
mūgiātur		mugatu	utroque		puturus pid
multāre	moltaum		utrique	puterei ^a	putrespe

Fragments of early Latin are preserved in inscriptions dating back to the third century before the Christian era; and some laws are attributed to a much earlier date, — to Romulus (B.C. 750), to Numa (B.C. 700); and especially to the Decemvirs (Twelve Tables, B.C. 450); but in their present form no authentic dates can be assigned to them. Specimens of these are usually given in a supplement to the Lexicon. (See also Cic. *De Legibus*, especially li. 8; iii. 3, 4.)

An instructive collection of them is given in "Remnants of Early Latin," by F. D. Allen: Ginn & Co.

Latin did not exist as a literary language until about B.C. 200. The language was then strongly influenced by the writings of the Greeks, which were the chief objects of literary study and admiration. The most popular plays, those of Plautus and Terence, were simply translations from the Greek, introducing freely, however, the popular dialect and the slang of the Roman streets. As illustrations of life and manners they belong as much to Athens as to Rome. Thus the natural growth of a genuine Roman literature was very considerably checked. Orations, rhetorical works, letters, and histories, — dealing with practical affairs and the passions of politics, — seem to be nearly all that sprang direct from the native soil. The Latin poets of the Empire were mostly court-poets, writing for a cultivated and luxurious class; satires and epistles alone keep the flavor of Roman manners, and exhibit the familiar features of Italian life.

In its use since the classic period, Latin is known chiefly as the language of the Civil Code, which gave the law to a large part of Europe; as the language of historians, diplomatists, and philosophers during the Middle Ages, and in some countries to a much later period; as the official language of the Church and Court of Rome, down to the present day; as, until recently, the common language of scholars, so as still to be the ordinary channel of communication among many learned classes and societies; and as the universal language of Science, especially of the descriptive sciences, so that many hundreds of Latin terms, or derivative forms, must be known familiarly to any one who would have a clear knowledge of the facts of the natural world, or be able to recount them intelligibly to men of science. In some of these uses it may still be regarded as a living language; while, conventionally, it retains its place as the foundation of a liberal education.

During the classical period of the language, Latin existed not only in its literary or urban form, but in local dialects, known by the collective name of *lingua rústica*, far simpler in their forms of inflection than the classic Latin. These dialects, it is probable, were the basis of modern Italian, which has preserved many of the ancient words without aspirate or case-inflection: as, *orto* (*hortus*), *gens* (*gentem*). In the colonies longest occupied by the Romans, Latin, in its ruder and more popular form, came to be the language of the common people. Hence the modern languages called "Romance" or "Romanic"; viz., Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French, together with the Catalan of Northeastern Spain, the Provençal or Troubadour language of the South of France, the "Rouman" or Wallachian of the lower Danube (Roumania), and the "Roumansch" of some districts of Switzerland.

A comparison of words in several of these tongues with Latin will serve to illustrate that process of phonetic decay to which reference has been made in the body of this Grammar (§ 8. 2), as well as the degree in which the substance of the language has remained unchanged. Thus, in the verb *to be* the Romance languages have preserved from the Latin the general tense-system, together with both the stems on which the verb is built. The personal endings are somewhat abraded, but can be traced throughout. The following table shows the forms assumed by *sum* in five of the Romance languages. In the others, the alterations are more marked.

LATIN.	ITALIAN.	SPANISH.	PORTUGUESE.	FRENCH.	PROVENÇAL.
<i>sum</i>	<i>sono</i>	<i>soy</i>	<i>sôu</i>	<i>suis</i>	<i>son (sui)</i>
<i>es</i>	<i>sei</i>	<i>eres</i>	<i>ês</i>	<i>es</i>	<i>ses (est)</i>
<i>est</i>	<i>è</i>	<i>es</i>	<i>hé</i>	<i>est</i>	<i>es (ez)</i>
<i>sumus</i>	<i>siamo</i>	<i>somos</i>	<i>sômos</i>	<i>sommes</i>	<i>sem (em)</i>
<i>estis</i>	<i>siete</i>	<i>sois</i>	<i>sôis</i>	<i>êtes</i>	<i>etx (es)</i>
<i>sunt</i>	<i>sono</i>	<i>son</i>	<i>saô</i>	<i>sont</i>	<i>sont (son)</i>
<i>eram</i>	<i>era</i>	<i>era</i>	<i>era</i>	<i>étais (√ STA)</i>	<i>era</i>
<i>erās</i>	<i>eri</i>	<i>eras</i>	<i>eras</i>	<i>étais</i>	<i>eras</i>
<i>erat</i>	<i>era</i>	<i>era</i>	<i>êra</i>	<i>était</i>	<i>era</i>
<i>erāmus</i>	<i>eravamo</i>	<i>éramos</i>	<i>éramos</i>	<i>étions</i>	<i>eram</i>
<i>erātis</i>	<i>eravate</i>	<i>erais</i>	<i>éreis</i>	<i>étiez</i>	<i>eratz</i>
<i>erant</i>	<i>erano</i>	<i>eran</i>	<i>éraô</i>	<i>étaient</i>	<i>eran</i>
<i>fui</i>	<i>fui</i>	<i>fui</i>	<i>fui</i>	<i>fus</i>	<i>fui</i>
<i>fuisti</i>	<i>foisti</i>	<i>fuiste</i>	<i>fôte</i>	<i>fus</i>	<i>fust</i>
<i>fuit</i>	<i>fû</i>	<i>fuè</i>	<i>fôï</i>	<i>fut</i>	<i>fo (fôn)</i>
<i>fuimus</i>	<i>fummo</i>	<i>fuimos</i>	<i>fômos</i>	<i>fûmes</i>	<i>fom</i>
<i>fuistis</i>	<i>foste</i>	<i>fuisteis</i>	<i>fôstos</i>	<i>fûtes</i>	<i>fotz</i>
<i>fuērunt</i>	<i>fûrono</i>	<i>fueron</i>	<i>fôraô</i>	<i>furent</i>	<i>foren</i>
<i>sim</i>	<i>sia</i>	<i>sea</i>	<i>seja</i>	<i>sois</i>	<i>sia</i>
<i>sis</i>	<i>sii</i>	<i>seas</i>	<i>sejas</i>	<i>sois</i>	<i>sias</i>
<i>sit</i>	<i>sia</i>	<i>sea</i>	<i>seja</i>	<i>soit</i>	<i>sia</i>
<i>simus</i>	<i>siamo</i>	<i>seamos</i>	<i>sejâmos</i>	<i>soyons</i>	<i>siam</i>
<i>sitis</i>	<i>siate</i>	<i>seais</i>	<i>sejais</i>	<i>soyez</i>	<i>siatz</i>
<i>sint</i>	<i>siano</i>	<i>scan</i>	<i>sêjaô</i>	<i>soient</i>	<i>sian</i>
<i>fuissē</i>	<i>fossē</i>	<i>fuese</i>	<i>fôse</i>	<i>fusse</i>	<i>fos</i>
<i>fuissēs</i>	<i>fossēs</i>	<i>fueses</i>	<i>fôses</i>	<i>fusses</i>	<i>fosses</i>
<i>fuisset</i>	<i>fosse</i>	<i>fuese</i>	<i>fôse</i>	<i>fût</i>	<i>fossa (fos)</i>
<i>fuissēmus</i>	<i>fôssimo</i>	<i>fuésemos</i>	<i>fôsemos</i>	<i>fûssions</i>	<i>fossens</i>
<i>fuissētis</i>	<i>foste</i>	<i>fuescis</i>	<i>fôscis</i>	<i>fûssiez</i>	<i>fossatz</i>
<i>fuissent</i>	<i>fôssero</i>	<i>fuesen</i>	<i>fôsem</i>	<i>fussent</i>	<i>fossens</i>

Appendix.

es	sti	se	sê	sola	sias
estô	sia	sca	seja	soit	sia
este	siate	sed	sêde	soyez	siats
suntô	siano	sean	sêjaô	soient	sian
esse	éssere	ser	sêr	être	es, er
[sêns]	essendo	slendo	sêndo	étant	essent

PRINCIPAL ROMAN WRITERS.

REPUBLICAN WRITERS.

	B.C.
P. Mæcius Plantus, Comedies	254-184
Q. Ennius, Annals, Satires, etc. (Fragments)	239-169
M. Porcius Cato, Husbandry, Antiquities, etc.	234-182
M. Pacuvius, Tragedies (Fragments)	229-180
P. Terentius Afer (TERENCE), Comedies	195-159
C. Lucilius, Satires (Fragments)	180-103
L. Attius (or Accius), Tragedies (Fragments)	170-75
M. Terentius Varro, Husbandry, Antiquities, etc.	116-28
M. Tullius Cicero, Orations, Letters, Dialogues	106-43
C. Julius Caesar, Commentaries	100-44
T. Lucretius Carus, Poem "De Rerum Natura"	95-52
C. Valerius Catullus, Miscellaneous Poems	87-47
C. Sallustius Crispus (SALLUST), Histories	86-34
Cornelius Nepos, Lives of Famous Commanders	?

WRITERS OF THE AUGUSTAN AGE.

P. Vergilius Maro (VIRGIL), Eclogues, Georgics, Æneid	70-19
Q. Horatius Flaccus (HORACE), Satires, Odes, Epistles	65-8
Albius Tibullus, Elegies	54-18
Sextus Propertius, Elegies	51-15
T. Livius Patavinus (LIVY), Roman History	59-A.D. 17
P. Ovidius Naso (OVID), Metamorphoses, Fasti, etc.	43-A.D. 18
M. Valerius Maximus, Anecdotes, etc.	-31
C. Velleius Paterculus, Roman History	19-31
Pomponius Mela, Husbandry and Geography	-50

WRITERS OF SILVER AGE.

A. Persius Flaccus, Satires	A.D. 34-62
L. Annæus Seneca, Philosophical Letters, etc.; Tragedies	-65
M. Annæus Lucanus (LUCAN), Historical Poem "Pharsalia"	39-65
Q. Curtius Rufus, History of Alexander	?
C. Plinius Secundus (PLINY), Natural History, etc.	23-79

C. Valerius Flaccus, <i>Heroic Poem</i> "Argonautica"	-88
P. Papinius Statius, <i>Heroic Poems</i> "Thebais," etc.	61-96
C. Silius Italicus, <i>Heroic Poem</i> "Punica"	25-100
D. Junius Juvenalis (JUVENAL), <i>Satires</i>	40-120
L. Annæus Florus, <i>Historical Abridgment</i>	-120
M. Valerius Martialis (MARTIAL), <i>Epigrams</i>	43-104
M. Fabius Quintilianus (QUINTILIAN), <i>Rhetoric</i>	40-118
C. Cornelius Tacitus, <i>Annals, History</i> , etc.	60-118
C. Plinius Cæcilius Secundus (PLINY Junior), <i>Letters</i>	61-115
C. Suetorius Tranquillus, <i>The Twelve Cæsars</i>	70-
Appuleius, <i>Philosophical Writings</i> , "Metamorphoses"	110-
A. Gellius, <i>Miscellanies</i> , "Noctes Atticæ"	about 180

WRITERS OF CHRISTIAN PERIOD.

† Q. Septimius Florens Tertullianus (TERTULLIAN), <i>Apologist</i>	160-240
† M. Minucius Felix, <i>Apologetic Dialogue</i>	about 250
† Firmianus Lactantius, <i>Theology</i>	250-325
D. Magnus Ausonius, <i>Miscellaneous Poems</i>	-380
Ammianus Marcellinus, <i>Roman History</i>	-395
Claudius Claudianus (CLAUDIAN), <i>Poems, Panegyrics</i> , etc.	-408
† Aurelius Prudentius Clemens, <i>Christian Poems</i>	348-410
† Aurelius Augustinus (ST. AUGUSTINE), <i>Confessions, Discourses</i> , etc.	354-430
† Hieronymus (ST. JEROME), <i>Homilies, Dialogue, Epistles</i> , etc.	-420
Anicius Manlius Boëthius, <i>Philosophical Dialogue</i>	470-520
Maximianus, <i>Elegies</i>	about 500

† Christian writers.

INDEX OF VERBS.

In this index are given all the simple irregular verbs that the student will find in his reading. Compounds are to be looked for under simple verbs. If the simple verb is given with no mention of compounds, the compounds are conjugated like the simple verb. If to the simple verb a compound form is added (as "statuō [cōstitutuō]"), the compounds vary from the simple verb, as may be seen under the particular compound mentioned. If different compounds of the same verbs present different irregularities, several specimens are appended to the simple verb (see e.g. agō). Full-face figures (thus, 91) designate the most important among several references. References are to sections, unless "p." is used.

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ABBREVIATIONS

(USED IN CITING AUTHORS AND THEIR WORKS.)

Appuleius:	Lig., <i>pro Ligario</i> .	Liv., Livy.
Met., <i>Metamorphoses</i> .	Manil., <i>pro Lege Manilia</i> .	Lucr., Lucretius.
Cæsar:	Marc., <i>pro Marcello</i> .	Mart., Martial.
B. C., <i>Bellum Civile</i> .	Mil., <i>pro Milone</i> .	Nepos.
B. G., <i>Bellum Gallicum</i> .	Mur., <i>pro Murena</i> .	Ov., Ovid:
B. Afr., <i>Bellum Africanum</i> .	N. D., <i>de Natura Deorum</i> .	F., <i>Fasti</i> .
Cato:	Off., <i>de Officiis</i> .	M., <i>Metamorphoses</i> .
R. R., <i>De Re Rustica</i> .	Or., <i>Orator</i> .	Epist. ex P., <i>Epistulae ex Ponto</i> .
Catull., Catullus.	Par., <i>Paradoxa</i> .	Trist., <i>Tristitia</i> .
Cic., Cicero:	Part. Or., <i>de Partitio Oratoria</i> .	Pers., Persius.
Ac., Acad., <i>Academica</i> .	Phil., <i>Philippicae</i> .	Phaed., <i>Phaedrus</i> .
Arch., <i>pro Archia</i> .	Planc., <i>pro Plancio</i> .	Plaut., Plautus.
Att., <i>ad Atticum</i> .	Pis., <i>in Pisonem</i> .	Am., <i>Amphitruo</i> .
Caec., <i>pro Caecina</i> .	Quinct., <i>pro Quinctio</i> .	Asin., <i>Asinaria</i> .
Cael., <i>pro M. Caelio</i> .	Q. Fr., <i>ad Q. Fratrem</i> .	Aul., <i>Aulularia</i> .
Cat., <i>in Catilinam</i> .	Rabir., <i>pro Rabirio</i> .	Bac., <i>Bacchides</i> .
Clu., <i>pro Cluentio</i> .	Rep., <i>de Republica</i> .	Capt., <i>Captivi</i> .
C. M., Cat. Maj., <i>Cato Major</i> .	Rosc. Am., <i>pro Roscio Amerino</i> .	Cist., <i>Cistellaria</i> .
Inv., <i>de Inventione</i> .	Rosc. Com., <i>pro Roscio Comoedo</i> .	Curc., <i>Curculio</i> .
Deiot., <i>pro Deiotaro</i> .	Sest., <i>pro Sestio</i> .	Epid., <i>Epidicus</i> .
De Or., <i>de Oratore</i> .	Sulla, <i>pro Sulla</i> .	Merc., <i>Mercator</i> .
Div., <i>de Divinatione</i> .	Top., <i>Topica</i> .	Mil., <i>Miles Gloriosus</i> .
Caecil., <i>Divinatio in Caecilium</i> .	Tusc., <i>Tusculanae Disputationes</i> .	Most., <i>Mostellaria</i> .
Fam., <i>ad Familiares</i> .	Univ., <i>de Universo</i> .	Pers., <i>Persa</i> .
Fat., <i>de Fato</i> .	Vatin., <i>in Vatinius</i> .	Poen., <i>Poenulus</i> .
Fin., <i>de Finibus</i> .	Verr., <i>in Verrem</i> .	Ps., <i>Pseud., Pseudolus</i> .
Flac., <i>pro Flacco</i> .	Enn., Ennius.	Rud., <i>Rudens</i> .
Font., <i>pro M. Fonteio</i> .	Gell., A. Gellius.	Stich., <i>Stichus</i> .
Ad. Her., <i>[ad Herennium]</i> .	Hor., Horace:	Tr., <i>Trin., Trinummus</i> .
Inv. R., <i>de Inventione Rhetorica</i> .	A. P., <i>De Arte Poetica</i> .	Truc., <i>Truculentus</i> .
Lael., <i>Laelius (de Amicitia)</i> .	Ep., <i>Epistulae</i> .	Plin., Pliny, senior:
Legg., <i>de Legibus</i> .	Epod., <i>Epodes</i> .	H. N., <i>Historia Naturalis</i> .
Leg. Agr., <i>de Lege Agraria</i> .	Od., <i>Odes</i> .	Plin., Pliny, junior:
	Sat., <i>Satires</i> .	Ep., <i>Epistulae</i> .
	Juv., <i>Juvenal</i> .	Prop., <i>Propertius</i> .
		Q. C., Q. Curtius.
		Quint., <i>Quintilian</i> .
		Sall., <i>Sallust</i> :
		Cat., <i>Catilia</i> .

Ep. Mithrid., <i>Epistula Mithridatis</i> .	Sil. It., Silius Italicus.	Eun., <i>Eunuchus</i> .
Jug., <i>Jugurtha</i> .	Suet., Suetonius.	Heaut., <i>Heautontimorumenos</i> .
Sen., Seneca:	Tac., Tacitus:	Hec., <i>Hecyra</i> .
Ep., <i>Epistulae</i> .	Agr., <i>Agricola</i> .	Ph., <i>Phormio</i> .
Herc. Oet., <i>Hercules Oetaeus</i> .	A., Ann., <i>Annales</i> .	Virg., Virgil:
Q. N., <i>Quaestiones Naturales</i> .	H., <i>Historiae</i> .	Æn., <i>Æneid</i> .
	Ter., Terence:	E., <i>Eclogae</i> .
	Ad., <i>Adelphi</i> .	G., <i>Georgica</i> .
	And., <i>Andria</i> .	

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